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The Life of William late Earl of Mansfield. By John Holliday, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. F.R.S. and Barrister at Law. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Elmsly. 1797.

THE biographical department of English literature has been justly reproached for a deficiency in the article of **EMINENT LAWYERS**; and the circumstance is not less a subject of surprise than of regret. Whatever paucity of incident may in general attend the lives of those who are devoted to the various branches of abstract learning, a similar barrenness of biographic materials will seldom be found in the private history of the *chosen few*, among the gentlemen of the long robe, who arrive at professional distinction: on the contrary, their lives are frequently distinguished by the trials of fortitude, and the struggles of perseverance; or, if auspicious patronage prepares a smoother way to legal eminence, there may yet be reasons which render a literary portrait of the fortunate individual peculiarly interesting to the public.

The latter description characterises the illustrious subject of these memoirs. To attract the discriminating favour of a Hardwicke, and to obtain the immortal panegyric of a Pope, were circumstances sufficient to give celebrity to the career of lord Mansfield, while employed in the duties of the *advocate*. That part of his life is consequently destitute of the eventful complexion so favourable to the delineations of the biographer. If we view him, however, in the capacity of a *judge*, it must be allowed that the sagacious equity of his decisions, the fascinating eloquence with which he adorned the dry topics of jurisprudence, and the personal dignity and affability which distinguished his performance of the functions of his high magisterial situation, afford a very striking theme for literary eulogium.

The want of a proper tribute to these splendid qualifications is thus noticed by the writer of the present work.

* The author of these sheets has, during four revolving years,
CRIT. REV. VOL. XXII. Jan. 1798. B

been in expectation of some abler pen attempting the delineation of so exalted a character ; and he can truly say, that it would have afforded him infinite pleasure to have had a fair opportunity of resigning his materials to any gentleman desirous of signalizing himself in the annals of biography, and of twining round his brow a wreath of no small estimation. He would thereby have enjoyed complete satisfaction, in being able to contribute to the utility, the improvement, and greater perfection of a work of this nature.'

P. vii.

The liberality of this acknowledgment disposed us to treat Mr. Holliday's work with a candour beyond that which is strictly compatible with the duty of criticism : we therefore regret, that, notwithstanding such a favourable pre-possession, we are compelled to pronounce that the volume before us is one of the most tasteless productions that ever offered themselves to our notice. The materials consist of college exercises, juridical and parliamentary speeches, &c. by the late earl of Mansfield ; and, though already made public through various channels of the press, they might by some able pen have been combined and commented upon in a manner very illustrative of the life, and honourable to the fame, of that great character. Mr. Holliday, unfortunately for his readers, and the reputation of the earl of Mansfield, displays none of the talents requisite for such an undertaking. Weak and frivolous remarks, conveyed in a sort of composition not sufficiently tangible by criticism to deserve the appellation even of a bad *style*, convince us with what rueful barbarity a great man's memory may be treated under the pretence of *biography*.

Notwithstanding our justly excited censure, we shall make several extracts from this publication : but let not the author mistake the compliment, like a certain animal in the fable, who arrogated to himself the reverence that was paid to the reliques which he carried on his back.

Lord Mansfield's pedigree, birth, and juvenile progress, are thus related.

‘ The honourable William Murray, afterwards earl of Mansfield, was a younger son and the eleventh child of David viscount Stormont, who was the fifth viscount of the noble and illustrious family of Murray.

‘ Sir William Murray of Tallibard, in the shire of Perth, by Catharine his wife, daughter of Andrew lord Gray, had four sons ; and sir Andrew Murray, the third son, was the progenitor of viscount Stormont, the father of lord Mansfield.

‘ On the 3d of March, 1705, according to the computation of time in Scotland, but in 1704 according to the legal computation of time in England, William, the fourth son of lord Stormont, was born at Perth in North Britain.

‘ About the tender age of three years, he was removed to, and educated in, London; and consequently he had not, when an infant, imbibed any peculiarity of dialect, which could tend to decide that Perth had a fairer claim than Bath to the honor of his birth. The year of his admission, as a king's scholar at Westminster, appears to be 1719.

‘ When he was a Westminster scholar, lady Kinnoul, in one of the vacations, invited him to her home, where, observing him with a pen in his hand, and seemingly thoughtful, she asked him if he was writing his theme, and what in plain English the theme was. The school-boy's smart answer rather surprized her ladyship, “ What is that to you ? ” She replied, “ How can you be so rude ? I asked you very civilly a plain question ; and did not expect from a school-boy such a pert answer.” The reply was, “ Indeed, my lady, I can only answer once more, What is that to you ! ” In reality the theme was—**QUID AT TE—pertinet ?**

‘ Whether the affinity in Scotch enunciation between Perth and Bath, or whether the instructions sent with the honorable Mr. Murray for matriculation at Oxford were not written in a fair hand, the mistake of Bath for Perth was actually made ; and, however singular it may appear, candor must allow, that such a mistake might easily happen.

‘ Be that as it may, the entry of his admission as a student of Christ-church, Oxford, of which a correct copy is subjoined, is contrary to the real fact, respecting the place of his birth.

‘ *Trin. Term. 1723, June 18.*

Æd. Xti. Gul. Murray 18.

David f. Civ. Bath.

C. Som. V. Com. fil.

T. WENMAN, C. A.

‘ Sir William Blackstone is said to have mentioned this curious circumstance to the lord chief justice of the king's bench, while he had the honour to sit with him in that court ; when lord Mansfield answered, “ that possibly the bad pronunciation of the person, who gave in that description, was the origin of the mistake.”

‘ Bishop Newton, who was one of his cotemporaries at Westminster, bears this honorable testimony to his school-fellow's early fame.

‘ During the time of his being at school, he gave early proofs of his uncommon abilities, not so much in his poetry, as in his other exercises, and particularly in his declamations, which were sure tokens and prognostics of that eloquence which grew up to such maturity and perfection at the bar, and in both houses of parliament.

‘ At the election in May, 1723, when he was in the 19th year of his age, he had the honor of standing first on the list of those gentlemen who were sent to Oxford, and was accordingly entered of Christ-Church on the 18th of June following.’ P. 1.

We are then informed that 'about four years afterwards he was admitted to the degree of B. A.'

The 'Prize Verses on the Death of George the First,' and a 'Fragment of an Oration on Demosthenes,' were academic effusions highly creditable to the talents of Mr. Murray: the latter piece deserves particular praise for the elegance of its Latinity, and the felicity with which it discriminates the beauties of the Grecian orator.

It is stated by his biographer, that—

'On the 24th of June, 1730, he took the degree of M. A. and left the university soon afterwards, full of vigor, and determined to travel into foreign parts, before he sat down to the serious prosecution of his legal studies, to which his genius and his slender fortune, as a younger son, forcibly and happily prompted him. He travelled through France, and in Italy, at an age fitted for improvement and useful observation; not between 19 and 21, a period which his great patron lord Hardwicke, in one of the numbers in the *Spectator*, under the modest signature of Philip Homebred, evinces to be too early an age for our British youths to travel to any real advantage. At Rome Mr. Murray was probably inspired, and animated with the love of Ciceronian eloquence; at Rome he was prompted to make Cicero his great example, and his theme! At Tusculum, and in his perambulations over classical ground, why might he not be emulous to lay the foundation of that noble superstructure of bright fame, which he soon raised after he became a member of Lincoln's Inn?' P. 11.

The Plan for a short course of study, given to the duke of Portland, has been, we believe, more than once in print: some of the political observations which it includes are erroneous and superficial; but it contains many valuable hints for classical reading, and is properly preserved in a collection of this kind.

Mr. Murray was entered a student of Lincoln's Inn, in April 1724, and called to the bar in Michaelmas Term 1730. Our author, on this occasion, observes, that—

• Instead of submitting to the usual drudgery, as some are pleased to deem it, of labouring in the chambers of a special pleader, Mr. Murray's motto seems to have been "*Aut Cicero aut nullus.*"

• Early in his legal career he studied the graces of elocution under one of the greatest masters of the age wherein he lived.

• Doctor Johnson, in his life of Pope, says, "his voice when he was young was so pleasing, that Pope was called in fondness the little nightingale." Under this melodious and great master Mr. Murray practised elocution, and may truly be said to have brought the modulation of an harmonious voice to the highest degree of perfection.

• One day he was surprized by a gentleman of Lincoln's Inn,

who could take the liberty of entering his rooms without the ceremonious introduction of a servant, in the singular act of practising the graces of a speaker at a glass, while Pope sat by in the character of a friendly preceptor. Mr. Murray on this occasion paid him the handsome compliment of, *Tu es mihi Mæcenas!*" P. 24.

Lord Mansfield's introduction into professional life was singularly conspicuous; but we believe, that, in a majority of instances, even young men of talents will find the drudgery of 'labouring in the chambers of a special pleader' much more subservient to their legal progress, than 'the graces of elocution.' Mr. Murray soon became celebrated at the bar; and, according to our author —

' was also sedulous to introduce into active life his friend Mr. Booth, then a young conveyancer; which Mr. Murray's letter of the 25th of October, 1735, worthy of the younger Pliny, will evince.

' My dear Friend, Lincoln's Inn, 25th Oct. 1735.

' I received yours last night. I cannot but applaud the protection you give a sister, whom I know you love tenderly; yet it seems a little rash to carry your beneficence so far as to dry up the source of all future generosity; and I am sure it is greatly against the interest of every one who has the least dependence upon you, that you should do any thing which makes it at all difficult for you to persevere in a way where you must at last succeed. Of this I have no doubt; and, therefore, it is as superfluous to add my advice for your coming to town immediately as it would be to tell you that I omit no opportunity of mentioning your name and promoting your interest. You cannot fail, but by staying in the country, and suffering people who have not half your merit to step in before you. With regard to every thing you say of Mr. Pigot, we will talk more at large hereafter; I as little think he will bring you into his business while he lives as that you can be kept out of a great part of it when he dies. I am at present consulted upon a devise-settlement of his, whereby a great estate is left to a noble Roman catholic family, which I am very clear is good for nothing. Can you contrive a way by which an estate may be left to a papist? Though I have no more doubt of the case put to me than whether the sun shines at noon, I told the gentleman who consulted me, I would willingly stay to talk with a Roman catholic conveyancer, &c. whom I expected soon in town, and named you to him.

' I own I am desirous you should come to town; and, be assured, the best service you can do your friends is to put yourself in a way to serve them effectually. As to any present occasions you have, you know where to command while I have a shilling.

' I have not seen Prowse nor Rigdum since I had yours, but I am sure they are both your servants very much. *Nil mihi rescribas,*

attamen ipse veni. I am, I do assure you, with great cordiality and esteem,

Dear Booth,

Your affectionate friend and faithful servant,

W. MURRAY. p. 32.

To this letter, which certainly exhibits the character of the deceased earl in a very amiable light, that able lawyer, Mr. Booth, was doubtless indebted for the impulse of displaying his abilities in the sphere where they were afterwards exerted with great and deserved success.

'On the 20th of November, 1738,' the subject of these memoirs 'married lady Elizabeth Finch, one of the six daughters of the earl of Winchelsea.'

'With this lady' (says Mr. Holliday) 'he lived in great harmony and domestic happiness almost half a century. Lady Mansfield, who was exemplary through life in diligent, uniform, and unremitting attention to the discharge of her domestic concerns, and of every religious duty, died the 10th of April, 1784,' p. 40.

In 1742, on the resignation of sir John Strange, Mr. Murray was appointed solicitor-general, and subsequently took his seat in parliament as member for Boroughbridge. The political rivalry between Mr. Murray and Mr. Pitt (afterwards earl of Chatham) is well known; and it seems astonishing that the former should have submitted (which was often the case), in silence, to the insulting gestures and loud insinuations of his *bullying*, but not more accomplished antagonist. As we are not in the number of those who think that an office under the crown necessarily contaminates the principles of the holder, and as we believe the political character of the earl of Mansfield to have been grossly calumniated by the party spirit of the times, we are inclined to ascribe the pusillanimity to which we have alluded, to the torpid *fascination* sometimes produced by eloquent fierceness of reproach, rather than to any consciousness of actions inconsistent with integrity.

In 1754, Mr. Murray obtained the post of attorney-general; and in 1756, on the decease of sir Dudley Ryder, he was elevated to the seat of chief justice of the court of King's Bench, and the honour of a peerage.

The ceremony of his taking leave of the society is thus described.

'Previous to his taking his seat as lord chief justice, the usual ceremony of taking leave of *alma mater*, or the law-society of which he was a member, was to be respectfully observed. Whether the origin of this laudable custom is to be classed among those good old foster-fathers who have contributed to raise emulation in the students of the society, or whether it was designed to manifest the gratitude of the latter, for the honor which every high charac-

ter confers on the society. Whatever laudable motive introduced the ceremony, no man of sensibility could be present in Lincoln's Inn hall, when the honorable Mr. Yorke, on whom devolved the honor of making the complimentary speech to the new lord chief justice, *and of presenting* [presented] him with a votive offering of a purse of gold, in the name of the society, without being forcibly struck with the favorable impression, that he was the worthy son of the great lord Hardwicke. A fair occasion this for Mr. Murray to retaliate, who elegantly admitted and avowed, that *laudatus à laudato viro* made unmerited praise itself pleasing. The substance of this elegant reply, delivered with the greatest grace, ease, and perspicuity, was :

“ I am too sensible, sir, of my being undeserving of the praises which you have so elegantly bestowed upon me, to suffer commendations so delicate as yours, to insinuate themselves into my mind ; but I have pleasure in that kind partiality which is the occasion of them : to deserve such praises is a worthy object of ambition ; and from such a tongue flattery itself is pleasing.

“ If I have had in any measure success in my profession, it is owing to the great man, who has presided in our highest courts of judicature the whole time I attended the bar. It was impossible to attend him, to sit under him every day, without catching some beams from his light. [In this place he enumerated lord Hardwicke's particular excellences, and then went on.] The disciples of Socrates, whom I will take the liberty to call the great lawyer of antiquity, since the first principles of all law are derived from his philosophy, owe their reputation to your having been the reporter of the sayings of their master. If we can arrogate nothing to ourselves, we may boast the school we were brought up in ; the scholar may glory in his master, and we may challenge past ages to shew us his equal.

“ My lord Bacon had the same extent of thought, and the same strength of language and expression ; but his life had a stain.

“ My lord Clarendon had the same abilities, and the same zeal for the constitution of his country ; but the civil war prevented his laying deep the foundations of law ; and the avocations of politics interrupted the business of the chancellor.

“ My lord Somers came the nearest to his character ; but his time was short, and envy and faction fullied the lustre of his glory.

“ It is the peculiar felicity of the great man I am speaking of, to have presided very near twenty years, and to have shone with a splendor that has risen superior to faction, and that has subdued envy.

“ I did not intend to have said, I should not have said so much upon this occasion, but that, in this situation, with all that bear me, what I say must carry the weight of testimony rather than appear the voice of panegyric.

“ For you, sir, you have given great pledges to your country :

and, large as the expectations of the public are concerning you, I dare say you will answer them.

“ For the society, I shall always think myself honored by every mark of their esteem, affection, and friendship ; and shall desire the continuance of it no longer than while I remain zealous for the constitution of this country, and a friend to the interests of virtue.”

P. 104.

This reply must be admired as an elegant, grateful, and discriminating panegyric on a character of the highest lustre in the annals of British jurisprudence.

The factious virulence that aspersed lord Mansfield as a politician, did not suffer him to escape without censure as a magistrate ; but the wisdom, integrity, and dignity of his judicial conduct, easily repelled the venomous shafts of party invective ; and a less agitated public now feels the admiration due to a character which the keen and elegant *scandal* of a Junius would have consecrated to infamy.

We shall now present our readers with our author's account of lord Mansfield's retirement from the high and arduous duties of the bench.

‘ He retired in 1788 from the distinguished office of lord chief justice of the King's Bench, which he had held more than thirty years with a reputation and splendor unrivalled.

‘ The very affectionate and pathetic address from the bar, signed by the counsel who had practised in the court of King's Bench during some part of the period of his presiding there, which was transmitted to him at Kenwood by Mr. Erskine, on his lordship's resignation of the high office of chief justice, was to the following effect :

“ My lord,

“ It was our wish to have waited personally upon your lordship in a body, to have taken our public leave of you, on your retiring from the office of chief justice of England ; but, judging of your lordship's feelings upon such an occasion by our own, and considering besides, that our numbers might be inconvenient, we desire in this manner affectionately to assure your lordship, that we regret, with a just sensibility, the loss of a magistrate, whose conspicuous and exalted talents conferred dignity upon the profession ; whose enlightened and regular administration of justice made its duties less difficult and laborious, and whose manners rendered them pleasant and respectable.

“ But, while we lament our loss, we remember, with peculiar satisfaction, that your lordship is not cut off from us by the sudden stroke of painful distemper, or the more distressing ebb of those extraordinary faculties which have so long distinguished you amongst men ; but, that it has pleased God to allow to the evening of an useful and illustrious life, the purest enjoyments which nature has

ever allotted to it. The unclouded reflections of a superior and unfading mind over its varied events, and the happy consciousness, that it hath been faithfully and eminently devoted to the highest duties of human society, in the most distinguished nation upon earth. May the season of this high satisfaction bear its proportion to the lengthened days of your activity and strength!"

"To which address lord Mansfield, without detaining the servant five minutes, returned the following answer :

" Dear Sir,

" I cannot but be extremely flattered by the letter which I this moment have the honor to receive. If I have given satisfaction, it is owing to the learning and candor of the bar. The liberality and integrity of their practice freed the judicial investigation of truth and justice from many difficulties. The memory of the assistance I have received from them, and the deep impression which the extraordinary mark they have now given me of their approbation and affection, has made upon my mind, will be a source of perpetual consolation in my decline of life, under the pressure of bodily infirmities, which made it my duty to retire.

" I am, sir, with gratitude to you, and the other gentlemen,

" Your most affectionate and obliged humble servant,

" *Kenwood, June 15, 1788.* MANSFIELD." P. 461.

In a few years after his resignation, this illustrious man paid the debt of nature. Mr. Holliday thus relates the circumstances of his dissolution.

" Early in March 1793, lord Stormont, having occasion to consult his uncle on a law-case then depending in the house of lords, said his ideas and recollection were perfectly clear.

" On Sunday, March the 10th, his lordship did not talk at breakfast as usual, but seemed heavy, and complained of being very sleepy, and his pulse was low; volatiles and cordials were ordered for him, and cantharides were applied to his issues. On the Monday he seemed rather better. On Tuesday morning he desired to be got up and taken to his chair; but soon wished to be put to bed again, and said, "Let me sleep—let me sleep." After this he never spoke. On his return to bed he seemed perfectly easy, breathed freely and uninterruptedly like a child, with as calm and serene a countenance as in his best health, and had a good pulse, but was clearly void both of sense and sensibility. A blister was applied to the arm, which it affected no more than it would any inanimate substance. Scotch snuff was inserted into the nostrils by means of a feather, without the least effect. Some attempts were also made to get nourishment down by means of a spoon, but to no purpose; and as the last attempt had nearly choked him, it was desisted from, and his mouth was afterwards merely moistened by a feather dipt in wine and water. In this state his lordship continued

without any apparent alteration, some symptoms of the spark vital remaining, yet glimmering faintly, till the morning of Monday the 18th, when there was an appearance of mortification on the part most pressed by lying, and his pulse began to beat feebly. Fears were now entertained that he should awake to misery, which he fortunately did not ; but continued to sleep quietly till the night of Wednesday the 20th, when the lingering dying taper was quite extinguished. He expired, without a groan, in the 89th year of his age ; closing a long life of honor to himself, and great use to society, in a way the most to be desired : and it may be said of his lordship, as it was of king David, that he died in a good old age, full of days, riches, and honour.' p. 478.

The greater part of this volume is occupied with details of various causes decided by lord Mansfield in his judicial capacity. Many of them are unquestionably important ; but they are principally extracted from printed law reports, and receive no novelty of illustration from the pen of Mr. Holliday. It may, perhaps, be thought that we treat that gentleman with too much severity : but the biography of lord Mansfield was a serious undertaking ; and Mr. Holliday has made it a mere *thing of shreds and patches*. It is no excuse for this very feeble attempt, that no other had been made : — better is it that the graceful and intelligent features of the deceased earl should be preserved in the memory of those only who saw and knew him, than that a daubing pretender to art should alone have attempted to pourtray them ; — better that the professional character of the juridical sage should be sought by posterity in law books and newspapers, than that his life had been thus written,

The Works of Alexander Pope, Esq. With Notes and Illustrations by Joseph Warton, D. D. and others. 9 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

THE notes of bishop Warburton on the works of Pope not having met with general approbation, new comments and annotations were long desired by the public. That wish is now gratified by a critic of ability and reputation.

Dr. Warton accuses his critical predecessor of having disgraced his edition of the works of his friend with many 'forced and far-sought interpretations, totally unsupported by the passages which they were brought to elucidate.' The bishop, indeed, was so eager to display his sagacity, that he frequently overshot the mark, and pretended to discover meanings and allusions of which Pope did not dream.

A new account of the poet's life is introduced. It is loosely and digressively written ; but the critical observations which it contains are, for the most part, just.

The literary character of Pope is thus delineated :

‘ The vigour, force, and activity of his mind were almost unparalleled. His whole life, and every hour of it, in sickness and in health, was devoted solely, and with unremitting diligence, to cultivate that one art in which he had determined to excel. Many other poets have been unavoidably immersed in business, in wars, in politics, and diverted from their favourite bias and pursuits. Of Pope it might truly and solely be said, *Versus amat, hoc studet unum.* His whole thoughts, time, and talents were spent on his works alone: which works, if we dispassionately and carefully review, we shall find, that the largest portion of them, for he attempted nothing of the epic or dramatic, is of the didactic, moral, and satiric kind; and, consequently, not of the most poetic species of poetry. There is nothing in so sublime a style as the bard of Gray. This is a matter of fact, not of reasoning; and means to point out, what Pope has actually done, not what, if he had put out his full strength, he was capable of doing. No man can possibly think, or can hint, that the author of the Rape of the Lock, and the Eloisa, wanted imagination, or sensibility, or pathetic; but he certainly did not so often indulge and exert those talents, nor give so many proofs of them, as he did of strong sense and judgment. This turn of mind led him to admire French models; he studied Boileau attentively; formed himself upon him, as Milton formed himself upon the Grecian and Italian sons of fancy. He stuck to describing modern manners; but these manners, because they are familiar, uniform, artificial, and polished, are, for these four reasons, in their very nature unfit for any lofty effort of the Muse. He gradually became one of the most correct, even, and exact poets that ever wrote; but yet with force and spirit, finishing his pieces with a patience, a care, and all duty, that no business nor avocation ever interrupted; so that if he does not frequently ravish and transport his reader, like his master Dryden, yet he does not so often disgust him, like Dryden, with unexpected inequalities and absurd improprieties. He is never above or below his subject. Whatever poetical enthusiasm he actually possessed, he withheld and suppressed. The perusal of him, in most of his pieces, affects not our minds with such strong emotions as we feel from Homer and Milton; so that no man, of a true poetical spirit, is master of himself while he reads them. Hence he is a writer fit for universal perusal, and of general utility; adapted to all ages and all stations; for the old and for the young; the man of business and the scholar. He who would think, and there are many such, the Fairy Queen, Palamon and Arcite, the Tempest, or Comus, childish and romantic, may relish Pope. Surely it is no narrow, nor invidious, nor niggardly encomium to say, he is the great poet of reason; the first of ethical authors in verse; which he was by choice, not necessity. And this species of writing is, after all, the surest road to an extensive and immediate reputation. It lies more level to the general capacities

of men, than the higher flights of more exalted and genuine poetry.' Vol. i. p. lxvii.

Of his character as a man, the biographer observes, that—

‘ His predominant virtues seem to have been filial piety, and constancy in his friendships; an ardent love of liberty and of his country, and what seemed to be its true interest; a manly detestation of court-flatterers and servility; a frugality, and economy, and order, in his house, and at his table; at the same time that his private charities were many and great; of which Dodsley, whom he honoured with his friendship, and who partook of his beneficence, gave me several instances.’ Vol. i. p. lxxi.

It might have been added, that he sometimes exhibited *traits* of illiberality and symptoms of malignity.

Dr. Warton's annotations on the pastorals are not very important. Of these poems he remarks, that their principal merit consists in their musical and correct versification. To originality of thought, indeed, they have no pretensions.

Where the poet, in the Windsor-Forest, alludes to the ha-vock made in Hampshire by William the Conqueror, the annotator says—

‘ I have the authority of three or four of our best antiquarians to say, that the common tradition of villages and parishes, within the compass of thirty miles, being destroyed, in the New Forest, is absolutely groundless, no traces or vestiges of such being to be discovered, nor any other parish named in Doomsday Book, but what now remains. Of late years, some minute enquiries have been made on this subject, by accurate and well-inform'd judges, who are clearly of this opinion. The president Henault has given us a more amiable idea of our Norman Conqueror than is here exhibited.’ Vol. i. p. 114.

This is an easy way of exploding a statement as well authenticated as many accounts which remain uncontroverted.

The last note upon this piece contains a defence of that species of poetry to which it belongs.

‘ Pope, it seems, was of opinion, that descriptive poetry is a composition as absurd as a feast made up of sauces: and I know many other persons that think meanly of it. I will not presume to say it is equal, either in dignity or utility, to those compositions that lay open the internal constitution of man, and that imitate characters, manners, and sentiments. I may however remind such contemners of it, that, in a sister art, landscape-painting claims the very next rank to history-painting, being ever preferred to single portraits, to pieces of still-life, to droll figures, to fruit and flower-pieces; that Titian thought it no diminution of his genius, to spend much of his time in works of the former species; and that, if their

principles lead them to condemn Thomson, they must also condemn the Georgics of Virgil, and the greatest part of the noblest descriptive poem extant; I mean that of Lucretius.' Vol. i. p. 139.

Those verses (in the *Essay on Criticism*) which intimate the inconsistency of strength of understanding, and of imagination, with great powers of memory, have produced the following merited censure.

' The beauty of imagery in these lines should not make us blind to the want of justness in the thought. To represent strength of memory as incompatible with solidity of understanding, is so obviously contrary to fact, that I presume the author had in his eye only the case of extraordinary memory for names, dates, and things, which offer no ideas to the mind; which has, indeed, been often displayed in great perfection by mere idiots. For, it is difficult to conceive how the faculty of judgment, which consists in the comparison of different ideas, can at all be exercised without the power of storing up ideas in the mind, and calling them forth when required. From the second couplet, apparently meant to be the converse of the first, one would suppose that he consulted' [the sense requires the word *considered*] ' the understanding and the imagination as the same faculty, else the counterpart is defective. Further, so far is it from being true, that imagination obliterates the figures of memory, that the circumstance which causes a thing to be remembered is principally its being associated with other ideas by the agency of the imagination. If the poet only meant, that those ideas about which imagination is occupied, are apt to exclude ideas of a different kind, the remark is true, but it should have been differently expressed.' Vol. i. p. 182.

Many of the notes annexed to this poem, and of those which appear in other parts of these volumes, are transcribed from a former publication of Dr. Warton—his well-known *Essay on the Genius and Writings of Pope*. Such of the possessors of that piece, as have purchased the present work, cannot but be displeased at the repetition.

To the poem of January and May, and that of the Wife of Bath, scarcely any notes are subjoined. Those pieces, indeed, are not absolutely original; but they might have furnished grounds for various remarks.

In a note upon the epitaph commemorative of Fenton, the critic endeavours to rescue that ingenious writer from neglect.

' His integrity, his learning, and his genius, deserved this character; it is not in any respect over-wrought. His poems are not sufficiently read and admired. The Epistle to Southerne, the Ode to the Sun, the Fair Nun, and, above all, the Ode to lord Gower, are excellent. Akenside frequently said to me, that he thought this Ode the best in our language, next to Alexander's Feast. "I envy

Fenton," said Pope to Mr. Walter Harte, " his Horatian Epistle to Lambard." Parts of *Mariamne* are beautiful, and it ought to take its turn on the stage." Vol. ii. p. 401.

The notes to the *Essay on Man* abound with quotations from metaphysical and other writers; and reference is sometimes made to manuscripts.

The political passage —

“ — Thus states were formed,’ &c. —

is illustrated from the papers of Harris —

“ The highest order of men are wise and honest legislators: next to them come wise and honest magistrates: next to these, military commanders, whether naval or terrestrial: next to these, the tribe of artists, as well the elegant as the necessary: next to these, farmers, hinds, and labourers: then come idle men of great family, patent-gatherers, knights, and baronets, mumpers, fortune-tellers, gypsies, gentlemen without possessions; all who injure society either by fraud or rapine, or at least by ingratitude, in partaking of its benefits, without regarding the great duty of contributing their own endeavours.” Vol. iii. p. 106.

The *men of great family* will not be pleased with this arrangement. They will think it a democratic degradation to be classed with *mumpers* and *gypsies*.

Dr. Warton admires the lines —

“ He from the wond'ring furrow,’ &c.

He says —

“ A finer example can perhaps scarce be given of a compact and comprehensive style. The manner in which the four elements were subdued is comprised in these four lines alone. Pope is here, as Quintilian says of another, “ *densus et brevis, et instans fibi.*” There is not an useless word in this passage; there are but three epithets, *wondering*, *profound*, *aerial*; and they are placed precisely with the substantive that is of most consequence; if there had been epithets joined with the other substantives, it would have weakened the nervousness of the sentence. This was a secret of versification Pope well understood, and hath often practised with peculiar success.” Vol. iii. p. 107.

He is not, however, perfectly accurate in this criticism; for it is tautology to speak of a *profound abyss*: the epithet, therefore, is useless and improper.

He thus vindicates the celebrated Macedonian conqueror.

“ He” (Pope) “ has fallen into the common cant about Alexander the Great. Think of the scene in Darius’s tent; of the foundation of the city of Alexandria, and the extent of its commerce; of the many colonies he established; of his refusing to treat the Persians as slaves; of the grief expressed by the Persians at his

death; of the encouragement he gave to arts, both useful and elegant; and of his assistance to Aristotle his master, in making experiments and promoting science: the encomiums bestowed on him by two such judges of men as Bacon and Montesquieu, outweigh the censures of Boileau and Pope. Charles XII. deserved not to be joined with him: Charles XII. tore out the leaf in which Boileau had censured Alexander. Robertson, in his Disquisitions on India, has given a fine and comprehensive view of the very grand design which Alexander had formed to annex that extensive and opulent country to his empire.' Vol. iii. p. 144.

Where Pope ridicules the passion for court-baubles, the critic asks —

‘ Why laugh at a modern peer, for his solicitude to obtain two or three yards of ribband, green or blue, more than at an antient champion for his laborious efforts to gain a chaplet of parsley, or crown of oak-leaves?’ Vol. iii. p. 148.

It may be answered, that modern courtiers, in general, are influenced on these occasions by ridiculous vanity, and are ready to purchase such a favour by betraying their country; but that an ancient warrior courted the grant as an honourable and popular testimony of gallant and meritorious achievements.

For the illustration of a passage in one of the Imitations of Horace, an English letter from Voltaire is quoted —

‘ Mr. Voltaire, while in England, writes thus to a friend in Paris — “ I had a mind at first to print our poor Henry at my own expences in London: but the losf of my money is a sad stop to my design. I question if I shall try the way of subscriptions by the favour of the court. I am weary of courts. All that is king, or belongs to a king, frights my republican philosophy. I won't drink the least draught of slavery in the land of liberty, I have written freely to —, and I will always do so, having no reason to lay myself under any restraint. I fear, I hope nothing from your country: all that I wish for, is to see you one day here. I am entertaining myself with this pleasant hope. If it is but a dream, let me enjoy it: don't undeceive me: let me believe I shall have the pleasure to see you in London, drawing up the strong spirit of this unaccountable nation. You will translate their thoughts better when you live amongst them. You will see a nation fond of their liberty, learned, witty, despising life and death, a nation of philosophers. Not but that there are some fools in England. Every country has its madmen. It may be, French folly is pleasanter than English madness, but by — English wisdom and English honesty is above yours.” MS. Eng. Lett. Oct. 15, 1726.’

Vol. iv. p. 172.

If Voltaire were now in existence, he would find reason to make some alterations in this picture of the English.

The speaker Onslow is contemptuously treated by the doctor.

‘ By an affected gravity, and a solemn and important air, he presided for many years over the house of commons ; but not with the ability, knowledge, patience, prudence, and amiable manners of the present speaker, Mr. Addington, 1795. It is a curious fact in the history of English liberty, that the very first person who was raised by the commons to the dignity of their speaker, was a member who had been imprisoned by Edward the Third, for attacking his ministers and his mistress in parliament.’ Vol. iv. p. 270.

The poet Drummond is more praised than he has usually been.

‘ If Donne had taken equal pains, he need not have left his numbers so much more rugged and disgusting, than many of his contemporaries, especially one so exquisitely melodious as Drummond of Hawthornden ; who, in truth, more than Fairfax, Waller, or Denham, deserves to be called the first polisher of English versification. Milton read him much. And Pope copied him, not only in his *Pastorals*, as before observed, but in his *Eloisa*.’ Vol. iv. p. 290.

Colley Cibber is sometimes defended against the lash of Pope ; for instance —

‘ Notwithstanding all our author's or his commentators efforts to reduce to contempt Cibber's *Apology for his Life*, they will never be able to convince sensible and dispassionate readers, that it is not a work abounding in curious anecdotes, and in characters nicely and accurately drawn, though in a style indeed singular and affected. Swift was so highly pleased with Cibber's *Life*, that he sat up all night to read it, and would not quit it till he had finished the volume ; of which, when Cibber was informed, he shed tears of joy.’ Vol. v. p. 111.

Concerning the auditor Benson, and the poet whom he employed in translating the *Paradise Lost*, we have this note :

‘ Benson is spoken of too contemptuously’ (by Pope). ‘ He translated faithfully, if not very poetically, the second book of the *Georgics*, with useful notes ; he printed elegant editions of Johnston's *Psalms* ; he wrote a Discourse on Versification ; he rescued his country from the disgrace of having no monument erected to the memory of Milton in Westminster Abbey ; he encouraged and urged Pitt to translate the *Aeneid* ; and he gave Dobson a thousand pounds for his Latin translation of *Paradise Lost*. Dobson had acquired great reputation by his translation of Prior's *Solomon*, the first book of which he finished when he was a scholar at Winchester College. He had not at that time, as he told me (for I knew him well), read Lucretius, which would have given a richness and force to his verses ; the chief fault of which was a mono-

tony, and want of variety of Virgilian pauses. Mr. Pope wished him to translate the *Essay on Man*; which he began to do, but relinquished on account of the impossibility of imitating its brevity in another language. He has avoided the monotony above mentioned in his *Milton*; which monotony was occasioned by translating a poem in rhyme. Bishop Hare, a capable judge, used to mention his *Solomon* as one of the purest pieces of modern Latin poetry. Though he had so much felicity in translating, yet his original poems, of which I have seen many, were very feeble and flat, and contained no mark of genius. He had no great stock of general literature, and was by no means qualified to pronounce on what degree of learning Pope possessed; and I am surprized that Johnson should quote him, as saying, "I found Pope had more learning than I expected." Vol. v. p. 240.

Against Pope's attack upon the directors of classical schools—

—*Words, we teach alone*—

the doctor feels all the indignation of a pedagogue.

"Here" (he says) "is a gross misrepresentation of a fact, easily confuted by a great cloud of witnesses. When he made this assertion, our poet must have been very ill-informed of what is constantly taught in our great schools. To read, to interpret, to translate the best poets, orators, and historians, of the best ages; that is, those authors, "that supply most axioms of prudence, most principles of moral truth, most examples of virtue and integrity, most materials for conversation;" cannot be called confining youth to words alone, and keeping them out of the way of real knowledge. And as to plying the memory, and loading the brain, it was the opinion of Milton, and is a practice in our great seminaries, "that if passages from the heroic poems, orations, and tragedies of the ancients, were solemnly pronounced, with right accent and grace, they would endue the scholars even with the spirit and vigour of Demosthenes, or Cicero, Euripides or Sophocles." The illustrious names of Wyndham, Talbot, Murray, and Pulteney, which our author himself immediately adds, and which catalogue might be much enlarged with the names of many great statesmen, lawyers, and divines, past and present, are a strong confutation of this opprobrious and futile objection." Vol. v. p. 246.

The poet's remark is too strong; but it is not destitute of foundation.

The note which follows will gratify the admirers of Matthew Prior.

"I have frequently wondered how sparing Pope has been in general in his praises of Prior, especially as the latter was the intimate friend of Swift and lord Oxford. I imagine this reserve is owing principally to some satirical epigrams that Prior wrote on Atterbury. The *Alma* is not the only composition of Prior, in which he has

displayed a knowledge of the world and of human nature; for I was once permitted to read a curious manuscript, late in the hands of her grace the duchess dowager of Portland, containing essays and dialogues of the dead, on the following subjects, by Prior:

- ‘ 1. Heads for a Treatise on Learning.
- ‘ 2. Essay on Opinion.
- ‘ 3. A Dialogue betwixt Charles the Fifth and Clenard the Grammian.
- ‘ 4. Betwixt Locke and Montaigne.
- ‘ 5. The Vicar of Bray and Sir Thomas More.
- ‘ 6. Oliver Cromwell and his Porter.

‘ If these pieces were published, Prior would appear to be as good a prose-writer as a poet. It seems to be growing a little fashionable to decry his great merits as a poet. They who do this seem not sufficiently to have attended to his admirable Ode to Mr. Charles Montague, afterwards earl of Halifax; his Ode to the Queen, 1706; his Epistle and Ode to Boileau; most of his Tales; the Alma, here mentioned; the Henry and Emma, (in which surely are many strokes of true tenderness and pathos); and his Solomon, a poem which, however faulty in its plan, has yet very many noble and finished passages.’ Vol. vi. p. 27.

The letters of Pope are not highly approved by Dr. Warton. He deems them stiff and affected, rather than easy and familiar. He adds, that Gray was a ‘much better writer of letters than Pope.’ The epistles of Gray, however, do not appear to us to possess any great degree of excellence.

Notwithstanding various blemishes of style, and instances of the garrulity of age, the notes in this work are useful and amusing, in point of poetical criticism, illustration, and anecdote. The best, however, are those which the world had before seen in the *Essay*.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. For the Year 1797. Part I. 4to. 9s. Sewed. Elmsly. 1797.

THIS part of the *Philosophical Transactions* contains some important papers. The mathematician will find full employment in examining the paper of Don Mendoza y Rios; the oculist will derive instruction from that of Mr. Home; and the philosopher’s attention may be excited by the remarks of Mr. Huddart. The paper of the last-mentioned writer merits particular notice. We doubt not, that, from the hints given by him, many persons living by the sea-side, or employed on the sea, will be led to communicate their observations to the society, by which farther information will be obtained on the state of our atmosphere. The effect of the solution

of air and water has not hitherto been sufficiently noticed by the optician or the philosopher. The meteorological journal also deserves more attention than is generally bestowed upon this subject. We have ventured to recommend some improvements in the method of keeping it; which occurred to us from our former practice, and from the information given to us by a late member of the society, who was, perhaps, the most indefatigable journalist of his day.

‘ I. The Croonian Lecture. In which some of the morbid Actions of the straight Muscles and Cornea of the Eye are explained, and their Treatment considered. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.’

Mr. Home observes, that —

‘ Three different diseases occur in practice, which appear to arise from morbid actions of the straight muscles. These are, an inability to see near objects distinctly; double vision; and squinting.’

P. 2.

When a person is not able to see near objects distinctly, it may be the consequence of a want of power in the muscles to adjust the eye to the object; and, as in similar complaints in other muscles, we should treat the case as a strain. The writer, in this case, gives very good advice to oculists.

‘ If then we consider the disease which causes the inability to see near objects as a strain upon the muscles, and compare it with the same disease in other muscles, there will be no difficulty in accounting for the bad effects produced by every thing that irritates, or weakens the parts themselves, or the general habit: it will follow, that such a mode of practice should be laid aside, and those means adopted by which the parts can be soothed in their sensations, and quieted and strengthened in their actions, since in that way only the muscular fibres can possibly recover their tone.’ P. 7.

Double vision may arise either from a failure in the action of the muscles, when the eyes do not bear equally upon the object, or from a change in the refracting media of one eye. Two instances are given of the former case.

The remarks on squinting are just, and may prove useful.

‘ Squinting takes place under the three following circumstances: where one eye has only an indistinct vision; where both eyes are capable of seeing objects, but the one less perfect in itself than the other; and where the muscles of one eye have acquired from practice a power of moving it independently of the other.

‘ Where squinting arises from an absolute imperfection in the eye, there can be no cure.

‘ When it arises from weakness only in the sight of one eye, it may, in some instances, be got the better of; but to effect the cure there is only one mode, which is that of confining the person to

the use of the weak eye by covering the other; in this way the muscles, from constant use, will become perfect in the habit of directing the eye upon the object, gain strength in that action, and acquire a power of adjusting the eye; when these are established in a sufficient degree, the other eye may be set at liberty. The time that will be necessary for the cure must depend upon the degree of weakness of the sight, and the length of time the muscles have been left to themselves; for it is with difficulty they acquire an increased degree of action after having been long habituated to a more limited contraction.' P. 17.

• II. Observations on horizontal Refractions which affect the Appearance of terrestrial Objects, and the Dip, or Depression of the Horizon of the Sea. By Joseph Huddart, Esq. F. R. S.'

From the theory of air established on the property of the particles repelling each other with a force inversely as the distance, it is easily demonstrated, that the density will vary as the compressing force; and, consequently, that, at the surface of the earth, this density would be the greatest, if no cause interfered to prevent the action of the general law. The writer of this paper thinks that such a cause does interfere near the surface of the sea; and hence solves, very ingeniously, many appearances, which must have struck most of our readers, in such situations, on their view of distant objects. This cause is the solution of the water in air upon the surface, which becomes lighter than the next plate of incumbent air; and, as there is a constant succession of particles in solution, which are constantly rising, there will be always near the surface of the sea a plate of considerable thickness, much rarer than the plate above it. The particles in solution, as they rise from the surface of the sea, grow more dense, till they come to the place where the air itself is of the greatest density; from that point in their ascent, like the other air, they become more rare, till they rest in *equilibrio* with air of equal rarity: with the first plate only, namely, in the plate where the particles in solution grow more dense in their passage from the surface of the sea, have we now any concern; and, if this is allowed to be a fact, all objects seen by rays passing through this plate must appear removed from their true place. Hence the appearance of headlands is accounted for, which sometimes seem to be dancing in the air; also of ships which, at a distance, appear double, having an inverted image under the real object.

The facts adduced by our writer, strengthen his hypothesis; and, from one of his observations, it appears that the maximum of density at the time could not exceed ten feet above the surface of the sea. This maximum will be found, by ob-

serving what parts of the object are clearly seen in the inverted position; and we may thence determine the height of the refracting plate. The subject is curious, and deserves farther investigation. It may be important to mariners; and from the appearance of the lights at Portland once to this writer, when the image of the lower light, being blended with the light itself, made it appear with double brightness, he recommends to mariners to station people at different heights in looking out for a light, in order to get sight of it near the horizon, where it is always strongest. Another circumstance, of no less importance, is the effect which this plate of air must have upon all calculations in which the dip of the sea is concerned; for the common corrections made by the barometer and thermometer, will be of no avail, till some formulæ are also made for determining the height of the plate of air, and the nature of evaporation on the surface of the sea. But we have said enough to excite the curiosity of the sailor to examine more fully this paper; and the mathematician, from the data which we have given to him, may endeavour to ascertain the progress of a ray of light through the plate of air nearest the surface of the sea.

‘III. Recherches sur les principaux Problèmes de l’Astronomie Nautique. Par Don Josef de Mendoza y Rios, F.R.S.’

Don Mendoza y Rios is better known, perhaps, in this country, than in his own, for the extent of his mathematical knowledge; and in this paper he has given the result of indefatigable exertions on the most difficult problems of nautical astronomy. The great advantage which he proposes by his method, is from his expressions for the versed sine; and we could not pretend to enter upon a comparison of his scheme with the different modes now in use, without going through a number of calculations, in which the majority of our readers would not be inclined to follow us, and of which the limits of our plan would prohibit the insertion.

‘IV. On the Nature of the Diamond. By Smithson Tenant, Esq. F.R.S.’

Sir Isaac Newton supposed the diamond to be an unctuous body coagulated: Lavoisier, in 1772, pronounced it an inflammable body: this writer, by some judicious experiments, has ascertained that it consists entirely of charcoal, differing from the usual state of that substance only by its crystallised form.

‘V. A Supplement to the Measures of Trees, printed in the Philosophical Transactions for 1759. By Robert Marsham, Esq. F.R.S.’

We learn from this paper, that it is better to plant a grove than to raise one from the seed, as the writer proves, by comparing the increase in the growth of the trees sown or trans-

planted, the latter having, in this point, very considerably the advantage of the former.

‘ VI. On the periodical Changes of Brightness of two Fixed Stars. By Edward Pigott, Esq.’

These stars are, the one in Sobieski’s Shield, the other in the Northern Crown. The former has nearly the same right ascension as the star λ , and is about one degree more to the south: it varies from magnitude 5 to magnitude 7—8, and completes its changes in sixty-three days. Fourteen days full brightness, nine least; twenty-eight from middle of full, to middle of least, brightness; and thirty-five *vice versa*.

The star in the Northern Crown is in R. A. $235^{\circ} 2' 51''$. in declination $28^{\circ} 49\frac{1}{2}'$ N. varying from magnitude 9—10, to 6—7, and giving a period of ten months and a half for its changes. As there is great irregularity in the latter, observers should pay particular attention to it.

‘ VII. Experiments and Observations, made with the View of ascertaining the Nature of the Gaz produced by passing Electric Discharges through Water. By George Pearson, M.D. F.R.S.’

‘ The mere concussion by the electric discharges’ (says Dr. Pearson) ‘ seems to extricate not only the air dissolved in water, which can be separated from it by boiling and the air pump, but also that which remains in water, notwithstanding these means of extricating it have been employed.’

‘ The gaz or air, thus separable from water, like atmospherical air, consists of oxygen and nitrogen or azotic gaz; which may be in exactly the same proportions as in atmospherical air, for the water may retain one kind of gaz more tenaciously than the other; and on this account the air separated may be better or worse than atmospherical air, in different periods of the process for extricating it.’ P. 156.

‘ VIII. An Experimental Inquiry concerning Animal Impregnation. By John Haughton, M. D.’

The inquiry is restricted to the following subjects —

- ‘ First. What are the evidences of impregnation?
- ‘ Second. What is the proximate cause of impregnation?
- ‘ And, third. Under what form do the rudiments of the foetus pass from the ovary to the uterus?’ P. 162.

In the investigation, rabbits were employed, which were cut up in different periods of gestation; and the paper seems fitted rather for the Medical than the Philosophical Transactions.

‘ IX. Experiments in which, on the third Day after Impregnation, the Ova of Rabbits were found in the Fallopian Tubes; and on the fourth Day after Impregnation in the Ute-

rus itself; with the first Appearances of the Foetus. By William Cruikshank, Esq.

These experiments are not very interesting.

‘X. Letter from Sir Benjamin Thompson, Knt. Count of Rumford, F.R.S. to the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K. B. P.R.S. announcing a Donation to the Royal Society, for the Purpose of instituting a Prize Medal.’

The count has given, in trust to the society, a thousand pounds in the *3 per cent.* consolidated fund; the interest of which he orders to be expended, once in two years, upon a medal of gold and one of silver; a present destined for the person who shall have published, within that time, the most important discovery, or useful improvement, on heat and light: and, on a failure of candidates in any period, the accumulated interest is to be employed in the purchase of new stock, the interest of which is to be bestowed on the successful candidate at any period.

‘ Meteorological Journal kept at the Apartments of the Royal Society by Order of the President and Council.’

The more we attend to the journal kept by this society, the more are we convinced of the necessity of making more accurate observations, before we shall be able to give a consistent theory of heat and cold. For the months of January and December, the thermometers are observed at eight o'clock in the morning, and throughout the year at two o'clock in the afternoon. It appears by the journal, that the least degree of cold is very seldom at the time of observation; and in several months it varies considerably from that which prevails at the time of inspection. It would therefore be for the interest of the society to appoint, according to the months, different hours for examining the thermometers: thus, in December and January, they should be examined at eight, and at seven in the morning; in February and March, at seven, and half past six; in April and May, at half past six, and half past five; and thus for the other months, till we have discovered the time of the maximum of cold.

With respect to heat, it is likewise evident, that, by taking two as the hour of observation during the whole year, we cannot, from these tables alone, judge whether the heat is greater or less, before or after two in any given month; and, as it is equally desirable that this point should be ascertained, we recommend that more observations should be made. In winter also, it is certain that the decrements of the heat, after it has arrived to its maximum, are much greater in a given hour of the day, than in the summer; and, as all these things should be determined by observation, more hours are requisite. Sun-set, and the hour after sun-set, are peculiarly proper in certain months; midnight, and the hour after mid-

night, in other months. These suggestions claim attention, as, by the present system, little useful information can be obtained.

The average account of the year 1796 stands thus —

Six's therm.	therm. without.	within.	barom.	hyg.	rain.
50,1	50,5	58,8	29,89	74,6	14,779

Icelandic Poetry, or the Edda of Sæmund, translated into English Verse by A. S. Cottle, of Magdalen College, Cambridge, 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robins. 1797.

THE difference between the Runic mythology, as mentioned by Verstegan and Saxo Grammaticus, and as it is detailed in the Eddas, is remarkable. In the antiquary and the historian, it appears like the meagre and barbarous idolatry of savages; in the Eddas, it is a wild and magnificent system, calculated powerfully to impress an unenlightened people, and which may take place, in poetry, of the tamer fictions of Greece and Rome. In the Eddas, we find no mention of Tuisco, of Seater, of Ermesewl, of Swantowith; yet the name of Tuesday sufficiently proves that one of these idols was worshipped by the Saxons; and the horse which still remains cut upon the chalk hills of Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, may perhaps have been intended to represent the white horse of Swantowith. Perhaps, in the quiet security of Iceland, the Scalds indulged their imagination by extending and enriching the system of their forefathers: the same leading tenets, however, appear, from the earliest specimens of Runic poetry, to have been always the faith of the poets; and, as these compositions contain no allusion that may not be explained by the Eddas, they afford a strong presumption that the Eddas contain the orthodox belief.

When the Edda of Snorro Sturleson was published in that valuable work, the Northern Antiquities, 1770, the compilation of Sæmund was supposed to be lost. A collection of mythological odes, the first part of this work, has since been printed at Copenhagen, 1787, from a manuscript in the library of the king of Denmark. It is this work which Mr. Cottle has translated. The translation consists of twelve poems. The well-known descent of Odin is included in the song of the Traveller; and this is the only fragment of the series which had previously appeared in our language. Popular as Gray's version is, we think the translator has done wisely in inserting one of his own; the loose and rapid versification which he has adopted, is best calculated to represent the original; and with this the polished style of Gray would ill have accorded.

Our specimen will show, that, although Mr. Cottle's version may not possess this polish, it may still be read with pleasure.

‘ As down to Hela's realms he drew,
Thick the shades of darkness grew :
The dog of hell, with ceaseless bay,
Pursued the trav'ller on his way. ’

‘ Rous'd from his feast of death, with gore
His shaggy limbs were crimson'd o'er ;
Still round his fangs the fibres hung,
Quiv'ring on his frothy tongue.
He bark'd ! and thro' the void profound,
Hell re-echo'd to the sound.’ P. 219.

In the translation of this poem, there is one couplet to which we must object —

‘ Eyeless Hoder soon shall throw
The unsuspected misteltoe.’ P. 223.

The original does not express in what manner Hoder was to destroy his brother; had the sage said that it would be by the misteltoe, her words would have been rather a warning than a prophecy.

We observe some errors in this work, which seem to have arisen from haste. The word *bleed* (p. 85), is improperly used for the sake of the rhyme, instead of *die* or *perish*. *Raise* and *rays*, *lives* and *deities*, *spoke* and *smote*, *perplex'd* and *address'd*, are used as rhymes. The aspirate in *Hrimfaxi* must, in one place, be made an additional syllable; though we afterwards find *Hroptar* and *Hræfvelger* properly pronounced. In some few instances, the sense has been dilated; but in general the version is executed with great spirit and great accuracy; and in the most difficult part, that of rendering the various synonyms in the tenth ode, much judgment is displayed.

We insert part of the seventh ode, as an interesting specimen of the work. It is the most amusing of the series; but all are valuable; and he who is most versed in the mysteries of the northern mythology, will learn much from perusing the Edda of Sæmund.

It is proper to premise, that the mallet of Thor has been stolen by the giant Thrym, who has promised to restore it on receiving Freya for his wife. To recover the mallet and preserve Freya, Thor is, by advice of Lok, disguised as the goddess.

‘ Thor then with nuptial tire was crown'd :
Low swept his pall along the ground :
In emblematic order shone,
The keys suspended from his zone : ’

Rings upon his hand he bore,
And round his head a garland wore.

‘ I too in female garb array’d,
Lok cry’d, will imitate thy maid :
Thus we’ll to the Jotni ride,
Nymph and servant, side by side.

‘ Quickly to their goats they flew,
And round the shining harness threw.
The gilded chariot, form’d for speed,
Soon confess’d th’ immortal breed.
Rocks, as they pursu’d their way,
Dissolv’d in smoking clouds away ;
And as their flying steps rebound,
Lambent radiance fired the ground :
Nor was their untam’d fury spent,
Till Thor to the Jötni went.

‘ Thurstori ! dynasts of this sphere !
(Thor began approaching near,)
Strew around each fragrant flower !
Quick prepare the nuptial bower !
Freya from Niorder sprung,
Whom Noathuna calls her son,
Comes to grace your chieftain’s bed—
Haste the wedding banquet spread !’ p. 186.

The giant is then represented as boasting of his possessions, and demanding the hand of Freya. Supposing Thor to be the lady, he,

‘ _____ am’rously inclin’d,
Threw the veil of Thor behind ;
Then starting sideways from his seat,
Affrighted, made a swift retreat.
Freya ! he cries, ah ! tell me why
Thou look’st at me so furiously :
For verily thine eye-balls stare
With most terrific fiery glare.

‘ Lok, ever fam’d for apt reply,
Strove the chief to pacify.
Well may her looks, he cry’d, surprise,
Eight nights no sleep has blest her eyes ;
Such was her strong desire to see
Th’ Jötni sons, and sleep with thee.

‘ The giant’s sister then drew near
And what the portion, wish’d to hear.
Lo ! I will yield, at Thrym’s command,
These shining jewels from my hand ;

If he my love would wish to gain—
Love unimpeach'd with guilty stain.

‘ Thrym by doubts no more perplex'd,
Thus his sons around address'd—
The mallet hither bring, my boys,
To consecrate our nuptial joys ;
Place that dread contunder there,
Safe in the soft lap of my fair.
Now the bridal bed array—
Haste my children—no delay,

‘ Safe the mallet thus to view,
Elorrid's joy to rapture grew.
Ere another word he spoke,
First the giant Thrym he smote ;
Then with indignation warm,
Thrym's descendants felt his arm.
Bravely he the mallet us'd,
And ev'ry chief to atoms bruis'd.

‘ Prostrate all the giant crew—
Swift to the sordid dame he flew.
That she the portion should require,
With tenfold fury edg'd his ire.
Instead of jingling ore he throws,
Round her head fierce clatt'ring blows ;
And in default of dower and rings,
More furiously his mallet swings.
His veng'ance o'er—and weapon won,
Home return'd Loveya's son.’ p. 189.

Mr. Cottle, we think, should, for his own sake, have distinguished his additional notes ; for they are judicious, and untinged with the pedantry of the Danish editors.

A poem, by Mr. Southey, is prefixed to the volume. We extract from it a mark of respect to the memory of Mrs. Godwin.

‘ Wild the Runic faith,
And wild the realms where Scandinavian chiefs
And Scalds arose ; and hence the Scalds' strong verse
Partook the savage wildness. And methinks
Amid such scenes as these, the poet's soul
Might best attain full growth ; pine-cover'd rocks,
And mountain forests of eternal shade,
And glens and vales on whose green quietness
The lingering eye reposes, and fair lakes
That image the light foliage of the beech,
Or the grey glitter of the aspen leaves

On the still bough thin-trembling, Scenes like these
 Have almost lived before me, when I gazed
 Upon their fair resemblance traced by * him
 Who sung the banished man of Ardebeil,
 Or to the eye of Fancy held by † her
 Who among women left no equal mind
 When from this world she pass'd; and I could weep
 To think that *she* is to the grave gone down.' P. xxv.

We consider this work as a valuable addition to the literature of the country. The historian will find in it the creed of his ancestors; and the poet will acquire a variety of images peculiarly adapted for poetry by their novelty, their strangeness, and their sublimity.

Analysis of Researches into the Origin and Progress of Historical Time, from the Creation to the Accession of C. Caligula: an Attempt to ascertain the Dates of the more notable Events in Ancient Universal History by Astronomical Calculation; the mean Quantity of Generations, proportionate to the Standard of Natural Life, in the several Ages of the World; Magistracies, National Epochs, &c.; and to connect, by an accurate Chronology, the Times of the Hebrews with those of the co-existent Pagan Empires; interspersed with Remarks on Archbishop Usher's Annals of the Old and New Testament. Subjoined is an Appendix, containing Strictures on Sir Isaac Newton's Chronology of Ancient Kingdoms, and on Mr. Falconer's Chronological Tables, from Solomon to the Death of Alexander the Great. By the Rev. Robert Walker, Rector of Shingham, Norfolk. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards, Cadell and Davies. 1796.

THIS volume presents the prospectus of a work, long ago designed for public inspection; the author, alike venerable from his age and his character, having devoted to it above half of the period allotted to man. As he intends the aggregate of his labours for the press, this analysis is sent forth to prepare for its reception; nor can we apprehend that encouragement will be wanted, when we look back on the liberality vouchsafed to other undertakings, of far less importance, and of much more expense.

The researches at large will be comprised in two quarto

* Alluding to some views in Norway, taken by Mr. Charles Fox, whose *Plaints, Consolations, and Delights of Achmed Ardebeili*, from the Persian, are well known.

† Mary Wollstonecraft.

volumes, price 2*l.* 2*s.* to subscribers, and exhibited under the three divisions annexed.

‘ I. Principles of computation by natural and instituted measures; — days, weeks, lunations, equinoxes, solstices; — single years, natural and civil, common and bissextile, lunar, luni-solar, solar-tropical, sidereal, historical, prophetical; — festivals of the Jewish worship; — years in combination or circulating periods; the olympiad and lustrum, sabbatical years and jubiles, cycles of the sun and moon, eclipses, with their repetitions; — fixed periods, more remarkable epochs in the sacred and gentile history; rise and fall of ancient empires; — chronological stile, the Gregorian adjusted to the astronomical standard, and continued back from the time of the Nicene council to the Christian era; thence to the origin of measured time. To all these measures are applied the generations of men, the duration of magistracies, reigns, pontificates, and other supreme or subordinate dignities.

‘ II. Historical arrangements from Adam to the accession of Caligula, in the year after the crucifixion; — comprehending occasional strictures on the chronological schemes of Petavius, Scaliger, Isaac Vossius, sir W. Raleigh, sir J. Marsham, sir I. Newton, archbishop Usher; bishops Beveridge, Clayton, Cumberland, Loyd, Mann, Newcome, Pearse, Pearson, Richardson, Squire; the reverend A. Bedford, Blair, Jackson, Kennedy, Kennicott, Playfair, Priestly, Strauchius, Whiston; — as also on Grotius, Pilkington, Trapp, Yardley, and other writers on the sacred genealogies; Payley on sabbatical institutions.

‘ III. Dissertations on important subjects in sacred criticism, subservient to illustrate or confirm the principles and conclusions in the foregoing parts.

‘ Dissert. 1. On the dates of the books, in which is contained the history of the Old and New Testament.

‘ 2. Chronology of the Hebrews and Gentiles compared with respect to authority, genuineness, and truth.

‘ 3. Examination of the genealogical numbers in the Samaritan and Greek Pentateuch, Josephus, and others, discordant with the Hebrew notations, prior to the birth of Abraham.

‘ 4. History of the Sabbath from the primeval week to that of Christ’s resurrection.

‘ 5. True times of the Hebrew festivals from the first passover in Egypt, to the last in Christ’s ministry.

‘ 6. Origin of alphabetical composition and national records.

‘ 7. Means of preserving traditional knowledge, prior to the era of written language.

‘ 8. Gradual preparations for the introduction of the gospel.

‘ Illustrated with astronomical calculations, and chronological tables. The whole intended for an improvement of archbishop Usher’s Annals, and sir I. Newton’s Chronology.’ P. 1.

The summary before us commences with a general introduction, which (as the vulgar Christian æra, all dates being denominated prior or subsequent, is, by immemorial prescription, accounted the centre of astronomical calculations) advert's to the division of the times antecedent to Christ's crucifixion, and gives the series in the retrograde order as thus completed (p. 2.)—

From the crucifixion,		
To the date of Ezra's commission		490
Overthrow of Jerusalem and the temple		130
Foundation of the first temple		426
Release from Egypt		480
Date of the sojourning in Canaan and Egypt		430
Termination of the deluge		428
Creation		1656
		—
		4040 ¹

It is to be observed that Mr. Walker abides, and, we think, on indisputable grounds, by the chronological notations of the Hebrew text. Hence then, inverting the order of calculation, he thus presents the process of events (p. 8)—

Years from the first of Adam, in the year of the world		00
To the end of Noah's 601st year		1657
Commencement of Abraham's sojourning	428	2085
Departure of the 12 tribes from Egypt	430	2514 ¹
Foundation of the first temple	480	2995
Its conflagration	426	3421
Date of Ezra's commission	130	3551
True historical year of Christ's nativity	453	4004
Year of the crucifixion	37	4040 ¹

To the last article of this statement, we cannot accede.

The *first chapter* details the vulgar and historical dates of the Christian æra, according to the positions of different chronologists.

Chapter the second, going back to the first age of the world, represents the chronology of the Pentateuch in contrast with the *scheme of the primæval week*, according to archbishop Usher, and the *stages of the flood for astronomical style*, according to the Hebrew and Roman calendars.

The *third chapter* begins with the second age of the world, extending it to the sojourning of Abraham.

From that event, the *fourth chapter* descends to the departure from Egypt, and includes (p. 31) a series of —

Corrected dates, with the chronological numbers from the 70th of Abraham.

ANNALS.	Bef.	W. J. P. A. D. ARRANGEMENTS.	W. J. P. A. D.	Bef.
Abram, &c.		2083 2793 1921	-	2079 2784 1929
leave Ur				
Depart from Ha- ran, and settle in Canaan		2084 2794 1920	Remove from Haran First year of so. journing	2084 2789 1924 2085 2790 1923
Ishmael born	2094 2804 1910			2095 2800 1913
Isaac born	2108 2818 1896			2109 2814 1899
Returns from the altar	2133 2843 1871			2146 2851 1862
Marries Rebecca	2148 2858 1856			2149 2854 1859
Jacob born	2168 2878 1836			2169 2874 1839
Marries Leah and Rachel	2245 2955 1759			2246 2951 1762
Judah born	2249 2959 1755			2250 2955 1758
Joseph born	2259 2969 1745			2260 2965 1748
Judah marries	2265 2275 1739			
Joseph sold	2276 2986 1728	Judah marries		2277 2982 1732
Jacob in Egypt	2298 3008 1706	Pharez born		2299 3004 1709
Jacob dies	2315 3025 1689			2316 3021 1692
Joseph dies	2369 3079 1635			2370 3075 1630
Moses born	2433 3140 1571			2435 3140 1573
The Exodus	2513 3223 1491			2515 3220 1493

In this table, it is to be observed, that ANNALS refer to Usher, and ARRANGEMENTS to the author's corrections.

Another table is subjoined, from the first paschal moon to the pentecost.

The fifth chapter, entitled the fourth age of the world, is employed on the forty years between the Exodus and passage of Jordan.

The period, from the death of Moses to Saul, being discussed in the two chapters that follow, Mr. Walker proceeds to the chronology of the kings, which, beginning a new æra, and denoting their reigns in a regular series, requires the rules of computation to be distinctly laid down. With these applied to the reigns of Saul and David, the fifth age of the world, including the space between the foundation and overthrow of the temple, comprehends the intermediate princes, with corrected tables of their reigns and remarkable events.

The sixth age of the world commences a new division of chapters, the first of which extends from the restoration of the Jews to the fall of the Persian empire, and contains a variety of important discussions. The chronology of the Greek empire occupies the second chapter, and presents two interesting tables of dates.

The seventh age begins with the period between the battle of Actium and the demise of Tiberius Nero Caesar. A long chapter of general but very interesting remarks on the chronology of this period, introduces that of the life of Herod; which, af-

ter all the attention and acuteness discovered, we are sorry to observe, is by no means made clear of objections. The two subsequent chapters are taken up with the times of Augustus and Tiberius, and close with the table annexed (p. 198).

Chronology of HEROD, AUGUSTUS, and TIBERIUS NERO, including that of JESUS CHRIST, from the first JULIAN Year to the Accession of CALIGULA, adjusted to the VARRONIAN Years of ROME.

	A. P. J. 4668
Reformation of the Roman calendar	A. M. 3964
1. First Julian year. Tiberius born A. U. Var.	709
2. Julius Cesar assassinated	710
3. Battle at Mutina. First consulate of Octavius	711
4. Defeat of Brutus and Cassius at Philippi	712
6. Antigonus and Herod rival kings in Judea	714
9. Antigonus slain. Herod reigns	717
10. Battle at Actium	723
16. First year of the Roman empire	724
18. Census and lustrum restored	726
27. Herod begins to rebuild the temple	735
29. It was made fit for service in two years	737
38. A second lustrum. Herod dedicates the temple	746
41. Christ born. An enrolment at Bethlehem	749
42. Herod dies. True date of the Christian era	750
45. Dionysian, or vulgar, year of the nativity	753
46. First year of the vulgar era	754
52. Archelaus dethroned	760
53. Christ 12 years old. Cyrenius levies a tax	761
57. Tiberius joint emperor to his son	765
58. Augustus solemnises a lustrum and dies	766
59. Tiberius sole emperor. Val. Gratus procurator of Judea	767
69. Val. Gratus recalled	777
71. P. Pilate succeeds. 15th of Tiberius. John's ministry begins. Jesus about 30 years old	779
73. Jesus is baptised, tempted, works miracles, preaches	783
76. Phlegon's eclipse, in the 4th of the 202d olympiad	785
77. Crucifixion	786
78. Tiberius dies, in the 78th of his life and 23d of his reign	787
	A. M. 4042
	Jul. Per. 4747

Having terminated the chronological part of the work, properly so called, Mr. Walker proceeds to show the subservience of genealogy to chronology, in a line of generations from David to Christ, through three distinct series. This

part of the work is particularly interesting, and abounds with acute and solid observations. A new scheme is next offered, of the generations from Abraham to Jesus Christ; and Luke's edition of the genealogies is minutely considered.

To these various and instructive disquisitions, a long Appendix is subjoined, containing strictures on the chronology of sir Isaac Newton, and a chapter on Mr. Falconer's Chronological Tables.

Through the whole of this work, there is not a section destitute of passages which might be quoted as favourable specimens: but we can only find room for the following.

‘ By a singular felicity of conjecture, which sometimes reconciles apparent contradictions in historical records, has sir Isaac rectified that notorious anachronism, which ignorance and false erudition have laid to the charge of Virgil, in asserting, that Æneas was coeval with Dido. Those of the critics who affect the greatest indulgence to this poet's reputation as an accurate chronologer and genealogist, offer two apologies for this confusion of times, events, and characters. Some of them kindly allege the plea of ignorance in the antiquities and history of Tyre. This apology our very learned author repels, by evincing that both Virgil and his commentator Servius, not only had access to the archives of Tyre, Cyprus, and Carthage, but affirm, with the accuracy of historians, the co-existence of Teucer, Æneas, and Dido, about the period of the Trojan war. Others admit the poet's skill in the chronology and history of Troy, Tyre, and Africa, but suppose that he had recourse, for the sake of embellishment, to a poetical licence. This feeble effort, to save the poet's credit, betrays the ignorance, and injudicious zeal of his friends, the critics. That he needed no such jejune defences, has fully been shewn in a learned dissertation on the subject.

‘ It must, however, be owned, that Virgil was in part misled by the old artificial chronology, particularly in giving the sanction of infallibility to that oracle, which foretold a reign of 300 years to the kings of Alba, his conducting Æneas to Carthage in the 7th year of his voyages, that is, 8 years prior to the flight of Dido from Tyre, and full four years after his own death. But these deviations from historical truth do not affect the credibility of the fact, that this hero and heroine were contemporaneous; which they might be, on the supposition that they never had an interview.

‘ When the Romans conquered the Carthaginians, the archives of Carthage came into their hands; and thence Appian, in his history of the Punic wars, tells, in round numbers, that Carthage stood 700 years. Solinus adds the odd number 37. It was destroyed in the consulship of Lentulus and Mummius, A. P. Jul. 4568; whence count backwards 737 years, and the encænia or dedication of the city, will fall upon the 16th year of Pygmalion,

the brother of Dido, and king of Tyre." With all deference be it suggested, that, if from 4568, be subtracted 737, the remainder 3831, will denote the number of the Julian period, coincident with the first of Carthage; and, by the table, its foundation was laid in the 10th of Pygmalion, and 18th from the catastrophe of Troy. In this one character of times, sir I. Newton's intuitive perspicacity seems to have failed. This great man refers to no historical voucher, in support of his position, that the years of Carthage were anciently reckoned from the dedication of the city; and not from the date of the first building. History justifies this computation in no other instance, and does not mention this, as an exception from a general rule. From the sole authority of this eminent writer has the hypothesis derived traditional credit. But probable circumstances remonstrate. Necessity, not choice, induced Dido to undertake that expedition, of which safety, not empire, was the primary object. She launched with a few ships, indifferently manned, and found it necessary to disembark at Cyprus, where, having acquired a reinforcement, she resumed the voyage, landed on the African coast, and having ratified commercial treaties with the natives, formed at last the project of erecting a fortress. The foundation of Byrsa is, in the table, referred to the third year after her expedition from Tyre, precisely 737 prior to the desolation of the city by Scipio. Sir I. Newton seems to have fallen into an egregious mistake, when he reckons from the 16th of Pygmalion, A. P. Jul. 3837, for the interval hence to the desolation of Carthage, is but 731, instead of 737.

' This era, the downfall of Troy, so very memorable in the mythology of Greece, yet so inaccurately defined by chronological notations in the annals of the gentiles, sir Isaac Newton has ascertained by the various, but combined operations of astronomy, chronology, genealogy, and history. The result of such multiplied experiments is, that Troy was reduced to desolation A. M. 3108; 124 years before the restoration of the Olympiads by Iphitus, and 18 prior to the foundation of Carthage by Dido.

' The discovery of a source for computation in the times antecedent to the epoch of astronomical chronology among the gentiles, similar to the Christian era, (a term peculiarly and exquisitely subservient for connecting the history of the Old Testament with that of the New, and, in certain periods of time, the sacred with the profane), is a valuable acquisition to the stock of general knowledge; for which the present and succeeding generations are, and will be, indebted to the patient industry, and exploring genius, of the incomparable sir Isaac Newton.' p. 389.

Reverting to the design of this publication, we flatter ourselves that the object of it will be attained by the author, whose personal worth, literary qualifications, and unwearied application, strongly claim the public favour.

The History of England, from the earliest Dawn of Record to the Peace of 1783. By Charles Coote, LL. D. of Pembroke College, Oxford; Author of Elements of the Grammar of the English Language. (Continued from Vol. XXI. p. 422.)

THE sixth volume opens with the union of the two crowns under James the First, and ends with the exclusion of James the Second from both. In this period, the historian has to trace the fatal effects of deviating from the true principles of government in both king and people. The seeds of liberty, sown at the Reformation, were scarcely perceived to shoot in the reign of Elizabeth; but they sent forth strong branches in that of James the First, and might, with due care and prudence, have been brought to maturity under the sway of Charles. Unfortunately, the vain conceit of prerogative was too deeply implanted in his mind; and his death was the consequence of an attachment to notions which were almost exploded. The people, however, were not ripe for the enjoyment of true liberty; and they suffered the republican usurpers, and the protector Cromwell, to tyrannise over them. Their tame submission to this yoke gave spirits to Charles the Second; and, instead of learning wisdom in the school of adversity, or profiting by an observance of the errors of both parties, he abused the confidence of the public, and paved the way for the revolution in the next reign, which set bounds to the hitherto unrestrained ambition of kings, and gave to the nation the exercise of a right never to be used but on extraordinary emergencies—that of deposing one king and electing another. The progress of these events is occasionally arrested by judicious observations from our author.

The retreat of Charles the First from Hull was a bad presage of his future destiny: he did not sufficiently reflect on his own strength and that of his adversaries.

‘ Some remarks may here be expected on the general state of the nation, and on the dispositions of the different parties, at the commencement of the civil war which we are now on the point of describing. In point of opulence and abundance, it is generally allowed that the community greatly flourished. Commerce, notwithstanding occasional restrictions, had considerably increased since the accession of the Scottish line. Various improvements had been made in the mechanic arts; and those of a more liberal nature were cultivated with success. Population, though inferior to what it has since been in this country, was far from being at a low ebb; and this was a circumstance of some importance, when contending factions were levying armies. The imposts to which the people had

been subjected, were by no means exorbitant; and, even in the long intermission of parliaments, when Charles had raised money in irregular modes, the public clamors had been less excited by the magnitude, than by the illegality, of the demands. With regard to military experience, the pacific reign of James, and the languor with which Charles had conducted his wars with Spain and France, had afforded few opportunities to the English of acquiring any extraordinary share of skill in that department. But, in intrepidity, they have never been deficient; and their courage, in the approaching contest, was sharpened by the infusion of religious as well as political animosity.

Among the advocates of the royal cause, we may reckon the greater part of the nobility and opulent gentry, who considered it as their interest to support the constitutional influence of monarchy, in opposition to republican encroachments and popular pretensions. The clergy of the established church were, in general, the friends of Charles, of whose attachment to their order they retained a grateful sense. Many individuals of that denomination were also influenced, at this crisis, by the absurd opinion of the divine right of monarchs, and of the impiety of resisting them on any occasion. The inhabitants of the more distant counties, where faction had made less progress, professed, for the most part, a desire of supporting their sovereign; and persons of moderate sentiments, who regarded his concessions as sufficient securities for his future adherence to the constitution, wished success to his arms. Some of his most valuable friends were those who had eagerly joined in the general demand for a redress of grievances, but who, when he had removed the chief grounds of complaint, refused to promote the ulterior aims of an aspiring party.

The friends of the parliament were the major part of the community. The middling and lower classes were disposed to consider the national liberties as having a better chance of preservation under the care of the two houses, and particularly of the commons, than under the wings of a monarch whose oppressions they had felt, and whose sincerity they were taught by their representatives to distrust. The traders and manufacturers, and most of the members of corporations, embraced the parliamentary cause, in return for the gratifications of restored privilege, and in the hope of deriving future benefits from the exertions of a patriotic assembly. While the catholics, whose principles inclined them to the support of royalty, adhered to a prince who had treated them with lenity, the protestant dissenters, whose aversion to the church of England rendered them unwilling to support a conscientious patron of that establishment, adhered to an assembly from which they expected a greater indulgence to their religious tenets. Those members of the two houses who concurred in voting for the war, were not unanimous in every other respect. Many of them wished only to enforce the king's submission to such further limitations of his prerogative as

might disable him from revoking his concessions; others aimed at the total ruin of monarchy; and some sought only an opportunity of aggrandising themselves amidst the confusions of their country. Some were well affected to episcopacy; others wished for its subversion, and for the establishment of the presbyterian system.¹ Vol. vi. p. 266.

With regard to the death of Charles the First, opposite sentiments have been formed; and the parties for limiting or enlarging the prerogative impute to each other opinions which neither maintain. The opposition to Charles may be justified, without applauding the men who grossly abused their newly assumed power; and the execution of Charles may be censured with indignation, without elevating the unhappy sufferer to the rank of a martyr. The right too of punishing an offending king is by some called in question; and on this subject the following remarks deserve attention.

‘ It has been affirmed by many writers, that no community can possess the smallest right to exercise judicial cognisance over a monarch, as, according to them, his power is delegated from heaven, and is superior to all human inquisition. Others, on less superstitious grounds, are inclined to deny the existence of such a right, because the acknowledgment of it would have a bad effect on the injudicious populace, by encouraging them to that frequent and indiscriminate exercise of it which would weaken the reverence due to authority, and lead to anarchy and licentiousness. But, as government was established for the general benefit of society, for the protection of every individual, and for the prevention of those disorders which inevitably attend a state of nature, it necessarily follows, that some remedy should be allowed against the gross injustice and tyranny by which the conduct of the king or chief magistrate may be rendered subversive of the ends of civil polity. When different families, in the infancy of society, submitted to one head, for the increase of order and security, it can hardly be supposed that they would suffer that chief to assume the privilege of tyrannising over them with impunity. Though the desire of avoiding the dangers of a savage life prompted them to resign a part of that uncontrolled liberty which they before enjoyed, they certainly had no wish to sink into the extreme of slavery, but hoped to acquire that temperate freedom in which the life and property of each individual would be protected by the terrors of legal punishment, co-operating with the improved morals of a civilised community. In process of time, the chief, or those who were permitted to succeed him, might insensibly attain a greater height of power, which might at length degenerate into tyranny; and, in this case, when it became too flagrant to be patiently endured, that implied contract which, at the first rise of states, imposed on the sovereign the duty of preserving the rights of the people, would justify in the latter

the boldness of remonstrance, and, subsequently, the vigour of resistance. If a prince should be so depraved as to pursue an incessant career of sanguinary and rapacious despotism, and should be so incorrigible as to leave to his subjects no prospect of taming his inordinate passions, the emergency of the case would authorise the body of the nation to bring him to justice for his repeated enormities. Had Tiberius been condemned to death by a representative convention of the Roman empire, few persons, we believe, would have lamented the execution of such a sentence on so infamous a tyrant, or have been apprehensive of ill consequences from the establishment of a precedent applicable only to the most flagitious despots. Had Caligula and Domitian, instead of falling by the poignards of private assassins, been capitally punished by a national sentence, the world would have admitted the expediency of public interposition, and have applauded the justice of the decree. But, in the case of Agis IV. king of Lacedæmon, whose chief offence was an attempt to stem the torrent of luxury which had overborne the ancient frugality and strictness of Spartan manners, we feel a great indignation at the conduct of the Ephori, who, having tried him on a charge of misgovernment, condemned and put him to death; a fate which he did not merit. The same remark is applicable to the catastrophe of Charles, whose delinquency was far from being of that magnitude which could justify the severity exercised against him; and, if he had been guilty of the most nefarious acts of oppression and cruelty, no authority but the general will of the nation, signified by a free and full convention, could justly decree either his deposition or his death. That rule, however, was not adopted in the proceedings against this injured prince; and, if his fate had been committed to the decision of such a council, he would have been restored to the throne on certain limitations, not have been brought to the block. Even of that imperfect parliamentary assembly which, after his adherents had been driven from the legislature, prosecuted the war against him with such acrimony, a majority voted his concessions to be sufficient grounds for a reconciliation with him: how great, then, would have been the appearance in favor of his restoration, had the two houses remained on a constitutional basis! But the leaders of the independents, finding it impracticable to obtain the national concurrence in their bloody schemes, resolved to content themselves with the sanction of their own partisans, and of a mercenary army, a small and contemptible part of the nation. They therefore reduced the lower house, by the terrors of the sword, to a very diminutive proportion; treated the peers as mere ciphers, who had no right to interfere in the government; and thus, by the most iniquitous usurpation, assumed the whole power of the state. A court of judicature, erected by those who had no shadow of right by which they could justify their proceedings, would have acted in defiance of all law and justice, by presuming to arraign and condemn the meanest individual;

and such unwarrantable judgment cannot fairly be deemed, even by the most zealous enemies of monarchy, less criminal, when applied to a sovereign. Hence it must be allowed, even by such as are of opinion that Charles deserved exemplary punishment, that his death was in fact a murder, being decreed and enforced by those who had no authority for the act, and who, in the whole proceeding, grossly shocked the public feelings, and testified a contemptuous disregard of the general sentiments of the people, in each of those three kingdoms which had an equal interest in the fate of this oppressed monarch. His death, therefore, was not, as some have termed it, a national crime; for the turpitude and disgrace of it rest only on the memories of those ambitious traitors and crafty incendiaries who composed the majority of the independent faction.' Vol. vi. p. 381.

The character of Charles is well drawn.

' The accomplishments which this monarch possessed were numerous and respectable. He had a competent acquaintance with the *belles lettres*; was conversant in many of the sciences; was a good judge of the polite arts; was far from being deficient in the knowledge of the principal mechanic arts; excelled in argument and disputation; had a talent for literary composition; and, in short, was qualified, by his abilities and attainments, to adorn and ennoble society. His private virtues, likewise, were eminently conspicuous. He was chaste, temperate, œconomical, devout, mild, friendly, modest, and humane.

' With respect to his sincerity and honor, strong doubts have arisen. His enemies have represented him as one in whose most solemn engagements no confidence could be placed; but this censure is palpably overcharged, though we have sufficient grounds for affirming that he did not always scrupulously adhere to the dictates of good faith. Had he moved in a private sphere, he would probably, from his general regularity and strictness of deportment, have been distinguished by an adherence to his promises and declarations; but his monarchical prejudices sometimes perverted the integrity of his nature; and he seemed to think that the rules of policy, and the opposition which he met with from his parliamentary subjects, furnished some excuse for his occasional violation of his professions and agreements. These, however, are not the sentiments of a man of unblemished honor; and, as his repeated infractions of the petition of right, which he had so solemnly confirmed, are sufficient proofs of our assertion, without the mention of other cases which might be adduced, an easy refutation may be given to a remark of one of the panegyrists of Charles, importing, that, for reproaching this prince with a disregard of good faith, "the most malignant scrutiny of his conduct affords not any reasonable foundation."

' His political maxims were too favorable to the ideas of the di-

vine right and irresistible authority of kings. Educated at the feet of Gamaliel (as he expressed himself), he imbibed, in his earlier years, those romantic and superstitious notions of the royal prerogative which his father was so fond of inculcating, and which were not only absurd in themselves, but were particularly disgusting to that bold and liberal spirit which animated a great part of the nation at the time of his accession. Finding that the principles of liberty were so strongly prevalent, he would, if his sagacity and prudence had been unallayed by prejudice, have studiously avoided all encroachments on the privileges of his subjects; and, by thus entrenching himself within the boundaries of lawful prerogative, he would have had a better opportunity of repressing the licentiousness of the advocates of freedom, than by indulging himself in those exertions of power which inflamed the indignation of the public, and stimulated the demagogues to a wider range of design, and a greater boldness of enterprise. But, being confirmed in his high monarchical notions by the insinuations of ambitious statesmen and ecclesiastical adulators, and by the suggestions of a catholic queen, to whose counsels he was too obsequious, he neglected the rules of discretion, and, by incautious measures, opened the way to those popular commotions which produced an intestine war, and terminated in the destruction of his own person and the subversion of the monarchy.

‘ In the adoption of political measures, he was, sometimes, timid and indecisive; at other times, by the prevalence of importunate advice, he was eager and precipitate. When he had given way to a rash step, he was quickly desirous of retracting it; and, even where he had not deviated into a hasty imprudence, but had resolved on a scheme in which spirit was requisite, he had not a sufficient degree of firmness and vigor to prevent him from yielding to the pertinacity of faction or the clamors of the multitude. He was also destitute of that insinuating address and those conciliatory manners which might have been usefully employed in soothing the rage of party, and in allaying the ardor of popular zeal.’ Vol. vi. p. 389.

The usurper Cromwell is presented to us also in his proper colours.

‘ This extraordinary man did not exhibit, in his youth, those distinguished abilities which he displayed in the sequel of his life. Both at school and at the university, he was generally considered as a youth of inferior parts, rather than of a promising genius; and, though he was active and lively in his recreations, his spirit did not seem to be accompanied with acuteness or perspicacity of intellect. Being indisposed to the pursuits of literature and science, he derived little benefit from academical education; nor does it appear that, though he afterwards became a member of a juridical society, he acquired much knowledge of the laws of his country.

When the public disorders had opened a wide field for his ambition, his latent abilities were roused into exertion; and he unfolded those blossoms of genius which ultimately gratified him with the fruits of sovereignty. His mind, though less cultivated than that of Cæsar, was as vigorous and decisive as that of the celebrated dictator. He possessed a considerable share of penetration; and no man ever discovered the characters and talents of individuals with greater sagacity of discrimination. While the purposes of others could not escape his intuitive keenness, his own views were so artfully disguised, that it was extremely difficult to fathom them. By the habitual exercise of deceit, and the frequent affectation of enthusiasm, he at length imposed on himself, and united the seemingly opposite characters of the hypocrite and the fanatic. By religious cant, and insinuating artifice, he duped the enthusiasts of the times, and acquired that exorbitant influence over a puritanical army, which encouraged him to push with vigor his ambitious aims, and enabled him to surmount the obstacles which opposed his career. His valor in the field, and his martial skill, were highly conspicuous; but his political intrepidity seems to have been even superior to his military courage. In one instance, however, he displayed less firmness and resolution than might have been expected from the daring violence of his spirit. We here allude to his desire of the crown, the assumption of which would not perhaps have been so dangerous as he imagined. His panegyrists may be inclined to attribute his renunciation of that scheme to his conviction of the baseness and perfidy of such a measure; but, on former occasions, he had proved himself callous to all honorable scruples. So inordinate was his ambition, that it over-balanced the obligations of faith, equity, justice, and humanity. The immolation of a royal victim, the seizure of the supreme power, and the open violation of those laws and liberties which he had professed to defend against the attacks of his sovereign, were so far from giving him the least compunction, that he even gloried in those unjustifiable deeds, and represented them as the dictates of a just Deity. The uneasiness which he felt towards the close of his life arose not from deliberate reflexions on his iniquities, but from a dread of the fatal effects of the embittered animosity of his numerous enemies.

In point of religion, he was a firm protestant; but to what sect he most adhered in his heart, it is difficult to determine. At one time he seemed to be a presbyterian; at another, an independent; and, during his protectorate, he was disposed to a revival of the episcopal order, to which he had before expressed a strong repugnance. In his negotiations with catholic princes, he was eager to serve the cause of the persecuted protestants in their dominions. The Huguenots and the Vaudois, in particular, derived some relief from his interposition.

As ambition was the cause of his deviations from rectitude, he was, in other respects, just, moderate, and humane. He was di-

stinguished by temperance and sobriety; and he studiously discountenanced, throughout the nation, the opposite propensities. He was economical in his disbursements, and frugal in the maintenance of his court; but, when the occasion required, he did not disdain the magnificent appendages of state. He was occasionally liberal to his friends; and some men of learning participated of his bounty. He was courteous and affable, and sometimes ludicrously familiar; and he would give way to mirth even in the most serious conjunctures; for, in signing the sentence of regicide, he indulged himself (like Elizabeth at the sacrifice of the Scottish queen) in indecorous pleasantry. In the filial, conjugal, and paternal duties, he conducted himself with general propriety; and, indeed, as is the case with most usurpers, his private character was more estimable than his public one.' Vol. vi. p. 464.

Our limits do not permit us to select many instructive passages in the reigns of Charles II. and his successor; but we cannot conclude till we have given our readers the author's reflections on the Bill of Rights, and the character of James II.

' The declaration of rights presented to William by the convention, may be considered as an elucidation and improvement of Magna Charta. It condemned, as illegal and unjustifiable, the suspending and dispensing power assumed by James; the court of high commission; the exaction of money from the people without consent of parliament; the maintenance of a standing army without the same consent; all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures before conviction; the demand of excessive bail; the imposition of exorbitant fines; and the infliction of cruel and unusual punishments. It asserted the right of the subject to petition the king; the right of the protestants to have arms for their defence; the freedom of parliamentary elections; the liberty of speech in parliament; the due empanneling of jurors; the necessity of having freeholders for jurors in cases of high treason; and the expediency of frequently holding parliaments, for the redress of all grievances, and for the improvement and preservation of the laws.

' Notwithstanding the praises which have been lavished on this declaration, we may safely pronounce, that it was, in several points, too indefinite, and, upon the whole, less complete than it might easily have been made. Not to mention other imperfections, the insufficiency of it with regard to parliaments may properly be noticed. It merely stated, that "parliaments ought to be frequently holden;" that "elections ought to be free;" and that the "freedom of parliamentary proceedings ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." Such vague declarations, instead of confining the prerogative in those respects within certain limits, seemed rather to invite than restrain the encroachments of the sovereign. Specific provisions ought to have

been made for the renovation of parliaments by frequent elections, for the prevention of the practice of influencing a majority by the arts of corruption, for the annihilation of aristocratical influence in the transfer of boroughs and the nomination of servile members, and for bringing the commons, as nearly as was practicable, within the strict idea of representatives of the people. But, while we lament that these objects were neglected, we do not mean to insinuate that the nation derived little benefit from the revolution which we have been describing. Though some points were omitted, much was certainly gained; and we have reason to applaud the conduct of those spirited individuals who exerted themselves at this memorable period for the expulsion of an infatuated tyrant, and the ascertainment and security of the liberties of their country.

‘ Of the character of the monarch whom this instrument deprived of his authority, a sketch must be here exhibited. His talents did not rise above mediocrity: they were neither contemptibly dull, nor eminently brilliant. He cultivated them with great assiduity; and at length attained, by indefatigable diligence, such a degree of knowledge as would have enabled him to fill the throne with reputation, had not his pertinacious adherence to an odious superstition vitiated all his attainments, hurried him into intemperate measures, and precipitated him from the sovereignty of three kingdoms into an abyss of ruin and disgrace. He was remarkably attentive to every branch of public affairs, and studiously informed himself of the particular as well as general interests of his people. He entered with great zeal into the concerns of navigation and commerce; improved and augmented the maritime force of the realm; and introduced into the naval service an order and discipline which had been before neglected. He managed his revenue with care and frugality, and vigilantly superintended the official conduct of his ministers. He was firm and persevering in his enterprises; bold and open in his designs; and generally upright and honorable in those transactions in which religion had no concern. He was steady in his political attachments, as well as in those of love and friendship. His personal courage was respectable, and had been displayed, before his accession, both in the military and naval departments; but, in the decline of his life, he seems to have been enervated by superstition, and to have lost all the manly spirit of his youth.

‘ An invincible bigotry to the Romish religion, and an implicit adoption of those extravagant notions of the royal prerogative, to which the princes of the house of Stuart were so remarkably devoted, were the causes of James’s ruin. He considered himself as the vicegerent of heaven, ruling by indefeasible right over a herd of slaves. The laws of the realm, he thought, were only obligatory on the people; and, as the national faith was inconsistent with his own creed, he deemed the private ties of his perverted conscience a sufficient reason for offering violence and insult to the religious

sentiments of the community. He was encouraged in his views by the strong declarations of unreserved obedience and blind submission, which the Tories, during their temporary triumph over the Whigs, had lavished on the crown; but, when he had invaded the constitution, and aimed at the subversion of the protestant establishment, he found that those from whom he had expected a full subjection to his will, were more inclined to practise the maxims of their adversaries, than to follow the servile lessons which had been lately inculcated by themselves.

* In his exterior demeanor, James was courteous and polite; but he had not that graceful address, or that suavity of manners, which distinguished his brother. In the domestic relations of life, he was mild and humane; though, in his public character, he was barbarously severe and vindictive. He was temperate, but not chaste; for even his pretensions to the praise of piety, and the remonstrances of father Petre, his confessor and chief counsellor, could not prevent him from indulging himself in adulterous commerce.

Vol. yi. p. 663.

(To be concluded in our next.)

An Account of Two Cases of the Diabetes Mellitus: with Remarks, as they arose during the Progress of the Cure. To which are added, a general View of the Nature of the Disease and its appropriate Treatment, including Observations on some Diseases depending on Stomach Affection; and a Detail of the Communications received on the Subject since the Dispersion of the Notes on the first Case. By John Rollo, M. D. &c. With the Results of the Trials of various Acids and other Substances in the Treatment of the Lues Venerea; and some Observations on the Nature of Sugar, &c. by William Cruikshank. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Dilly. 1797.

THE age of rational inquiry into the nature of diseases and their remedies may be said to be rapidly approaching. The trammels of the schools, and the vast mass of absurd doctrines, by which the reasonings and conclusions of physicians have long been fettered, are nearly shaken off. These, and many other obstacles of a less important kind, that have impeded the advance of medical science, are successively giving way before the strong light of chemical philosophy. The present may therefore be considered almost as the commencement of a new æra in medicine.

If other proofs of the validity of this opinion were requisite (which, however, is far from being the case), the volumes now under review would furnish an ample and decisive testimony in favour of the assertion.

Little, we believe, has yet been done, either in exploring the nature and causes of diabetes, or in pointing out those

means which are adequate to its removal. The disease has often occurred, but has rarely been removed. This, at least, has been the case in those instances which have fallen under our own observation. The usual methods of treating the complaint by emetics, opiates, bark, astringents, and the vitriolic acid, have, we are inclined to suppose, seldom been fully successful; and never, perhaps, where the urine had contracted a sweetness.

Such being the state of our knowledge and experience of this tedious and distressing disorder, there is surely abundant reason for considering the subject in a different point of view. This Dr. Rollo has done, and in a way that is far from discrediting his talents or ingenuity. To his sagacity, industry, and research, the medical profession is certainly much indebted, as they seem to have elicited a ray of light that may conduct practitioners to a more certain and expeditious treatment of a disease which has baffled their utmost efforts. And the attempt is still more deserving of praise, as it has been submitted to the test of actual experiment, and is generally supported by cautious reasoning. How far the author may have been deceived by fallacious appearances, or by the errors of hasty decision, future experience alone can ascertain.

The two cases of diabetes mellitus, which form the basis of the present publication, and the plan of treatment which was pursued, are well stated. This, upon the whole, forms an important part of the work, as it not only affords a correct view of the state of the disease, and of the progress of the cure, but presents those observations which serve more fully to illustrate particular ideas and opinions of the author. It might, however, have been compressed without any diminution of its utility.

The doctor has fairly stated the general opinions which have prevailed respecting the disorder. His conclusions are these:

- ‘ 1st. That the diabetes mellitus has been referred to a defective state of digestion and assimilation.
- ‘ 2d. That it has been referred to a morbid condition of the kidneys.
- ‘ 3d. That the precise nature of either affection has not been explained, nor understood.
- ‘ 4th. That the disease has been generally held incurable, as no distinct views of treatment have been proposed, nor any practical mode been uniformly successful; indeed very few cases of the disease are on record as having been cured, and even these are very unsatisfactory, as not being founded on any principle, but seemingly conducted at random.
- ‘ 5th. That immoderate thirst, voracious appetite, and a great discharge of urine, containing a large proportion of saccharine and other matter, are characteristic symptoms of the disease.

‘ 6th. That dissection has shewn very slight changes in the natural appearance of the kidneys; but that an enlargement of mesenteric glands has been uniformly met with.

‘ 7th. That the blood, taken in any period of the disease, though not sensibly sweet to the taste, except in Dobson’s case, yet its serum has had a wheyish appearance. Home, however, mentions no appearance deviating from that of health, but a thick inflammatory crust in the blood of one of the patients.

‘ 8th. That the only relief has been obtained from blood-letting, emetics, narcotics, antispasmodics, warm bathing, rubbing the skin with oil, animal fats received into the stomach, and what Home terms septic; though Dr. Ferriar and Mr. Scott attribute cures to bark, the sulphuric and nitric acids.

‘ And 9th. That tonics and stimulants generally have done harm.

‘ On the whole, we feel ourselves justified in saying that every thing that has been hitherto known or done, with regard to the nature and treatment of the diabetes mellitus, previous to captain Meredith’s case, and the dispersion of the notes on it, have been generally unsuccessful; and though we still acknowledge that the pathology is not in all its parts completely elucidated, and perhaps it never may, at least while the process of digestion remains unexplained, yet we venture to alledge that, except scurvy, there is perhaps no general affection so rationally and decidedly illustrated as is now the cure of the diabetes mellitus?’ Vol. i. p. 206.

The writer justly observes, that the history of the commencement of the disorder is imperfectly marked; but that, from the time of the appearance of the hectic fever, and wasting of the body, it has been better described.

‘ The most remarkable symptoms are voraciousness, or keenness of appetite, with quick returns of it, without the feel of satiation; a parched mouth, with constant spitting of a thick, viscid phlegm, of a mawkish, sweetish or bitterish taste; intense thirst; a whitish tongue with red bright sides; red and swelled gums, with the teeth feeling as on edge from acids, and loose in their sockets; head-ach; a dry hot skin, with flushing of the face; a quickened pulse; an increase of clear urine of a light straw colour, having a sweetish taste, resembling sugar, or rather honey and water; an uneasiness of the stomach and kidneys; a wasting of flesh; and a weariness and disinclination to motion or exertion, with the feeling of weakness.

‘ It is singular that with such symptoms when separated from the urine, medical people should have avoided making any enquiry into the state of that secretion; for by such an omission the disease has gone on for months undetected. The urine in its appearance and various changes requires constant inspection, for with other marks it will furnish a pretty certain criterion of the state of the constitution, as depending on stomach affection, whether morbid or healthful,

and it may probably serve to denote, with tolerable accuracy, the relative gradation between both.' Vol. i. p. 214.

With regard to the remote causes, we are indifferently informed. Additional facts, and a more accurate investigation of them, are still desirable. The circumstances which seem commonly to have led to the disease, are, active labour of body or mind, singly, or in combination; unrestrained indulgence in eating a variety of food, particularly such kinds as excite the action of the stomach, or otherwise interfere with its healthy motions; and a free use of fermented liquors, or a constant habit of employing strong vegetable food of the farinaceous kinds. The most general pre-disposition consists in a naturally strong action of the stomach, demanding food very frequently, and in large proportions.

Here Dr. Rollo particularises the common opinions concerning the nature of the gastric fluid, and of digestion. But his details are chiefly drawn from the writings of Chaptal, Spallanzani, Stevens, Fordyce, and Cullen. We have nothing either of fact or observation from himself.

The immediate causes of the disease he then concludes, on the authority of the two cases which he has described, to be 'a morbid condition of the stomach, and a general diffusion of a saccharine matter, with probably some change in the fluids.' An explanation is thus given.

' This disease therefore, we alledge, consists in an increased morbid action of the stomach, with too great a secretion, and an alteration in the quality of the gastric fluid, producing saccharine matter, and which remains unchanged, by a decomposition of the vegetable matter taken in with the food, and a certain defect of assimilation as connected with digestion, and which probably may be owing to an excessive activity of the lacteal absorbents arising from the peculiar stimulus of sugar in a separate state, or other matter; but which may also depend on a sympathetic effect with the morbidly increased action of the stomach.

' The voraciousness or keenness of appetite, with the very quick returns of it after eating, mark an increased action of the stomach; and which is farther corroborated by the success not only of our practice, but of any advantage which has been obtained by particular remedies. Warm bathing, unctuous applications to the skin, animal fats, and large quantities of opium administered internally, have proved the only alleviations, or steps approaching to cure which this disease has hitherto derived. It is true, bark and alum, the sulphuric and nitrous acids, have been mentioned as affording relief and even curing, and so has the Bristol water. But of either we can say nothing positively; though bark and alum, and those acids may be supposed to diminish increased action of a peculiar

kind, indeed we know that bark and the sulphuric acid actually do so.

‘ The increased secretion, and altered quality of the gastric fluid, are the necessary consequences of the increased action of the stomach. The opinion, that there is an increased quantity of the gastric fluid, is supported not only by the necessity of it arising from the increased action of vessels, but by the rapidity and nature of digestion, and the great quantity of a viscid matter uniformly thrown up by emetics during the continuance of the disease. The alteration of its quality is proved by the same circumstances.

‘ Besides, if it is admitted, that a dryness of the mouth, bad taste, and a failure of saliva mark, in dyspepsia, a deficiency and vitiation of the gastric fluid, we may with equal propriety alledge, that the mawkish, sourish, and sweetish taste, with the viscid quality of the saliva, and its increased quantity in diabetes, prove the superabundance and vitiation of the gastric fluid.

‘ The explanation of the increase of urine refers to the formation of saccharine matter principally ; but we also suppose a sympathetic effect may be attributed from the increased action of the stomach, communicated to the kidneys. And thus, though there were no saccharine matter existing, yet by the increased action of the stomach remaining, a preternatural quantity of urine would continue to be made. Our second case justifies this supposition, and it is further supported by considering, that there is an increase of urine in the inordinate actions of the stomach in other diseases, and that there is a great diminution of it in scurvy, where little or no action is admitted. The vinous diabetes gives the increased action of the stomach which is necessary to the diabetes mellitus, but depending on a temporary stimulus soon ceases, whereas the other continues as its stimulus is permanent. May not this stimulus be the acid state of the fluids in the stomach, and which animal food, with an entire abstraction of vegetable matter, may remove ?

‘ A scarcity of urine of a high colour, and offensive smell, when of some continuance, may denote the stomach of imperfect force ; the common healthy quantity, and usual appearance the stomach in perfect force ; and a great proportion of urine the stomach of too much force.

‘ The increased quantity of urine in the diabetes has been supposed to be connected with a state of skin favouring absorption from its surface. Though absorption from the surface seems now to be universally admitted, yet there are some doubts in our mind, at least with regard to its influence in this case. In our second patient, when the quantity of liquids taken, and the quantity of urine made was exactly kept, there appears an excess in the quantity drank. Dr. Currie, of Liverpool, mentions to us, that in a case of diabetes where he used the tepid bath with milk and with broth, he never could discover that the patient gained any weight during

immersion. In another case where, in consequence of an obstruction of the pharynx, the patient died of hunger, after subsisting without swallowing upwards of 30 days, the same remark was made.

‘ The great quantity of extractive matter in the diabetic urine, exclusive of the saccharine substance, shews some defect in the powers of assimilation; but as those powers are not sufficiently understood, we cannot attempt any particular explanation. Such defect seems to depend on the state of the stomach producing the disease, and probably on excessive activity of the lacteal absorbents.’

Vol. i. p. 232.

This reasoning contradicts some conclusions that have, perhaps too hastily, been considered as facts, and represents others in new points of views. The chemical examination of the properties of healthy urine is also important, as forming a kind of standard that may direct the decisions of future inquirers. We could have wished that Mr. Cruikshank had entered more fully into the investigation, as his brevity has occasioned the omission of some circumstances which would have rendered the account more satisfactory. It appears that the specific gravity of recent urine is from 1005 to 1033, distilled water being 1000; and that, by evaporation, thirty-six ounces, on a medium, yielded a residuum of one ounce and one drachm, which consisted of the muriates of soda and ammonia, and the phosphats of soda, lime, and ammonia; the phosphoric and lithic acids, and animal extractive matter. The relative proportions the author finds to be these: saline matter, or fusible salt, five drachms, twenty grains; animal extractive matter, three drachms, twenty grains; and lithic acid, with phosphat of lime, twenty grains.

On the states of the stomach and gastric fluid, Dr. Rollo’s reflections are interesting; but, of these, our knowledge is yet confined.

The plan of treatment here inculcated is not less simple and philosophical than the reasonings that have led to it. It rests upon these principles — 1st. the prevention of the formation or evolution of the saccharine matter in the stomach — 2dly. the removal of the morbidly increased action of the stomach, and the restoration of that part of the body to a healthful condition.

‘ Whatever’ (says the author) ‘ may be the cause of the formation of the saccharine matter, it is necessary to prevent it, as on its general stimulus in the system, and particularly on the kidneys, very general affections are maintained. Besides, the means employed to prevent such formation may tend to the removal of the morbid action of the stomach and lacteal absorbents, and the increased and altered state of the gastric fluid on which its production

probably depends. Animal food, animal fats, and confinement, with an entire abstinence from every kind of vegetable matter, afford the means, and which may be facilitated by the daily use of alkalies, calcareous and testaceous substances. The quantity of animal food should be restricted, and given in as small quantities as possible to satisfy the stomach.

‘ When the urine points out the absence of the saccharine matter, and at the same time its quantity continues more than natural, and containing likewise more of the extractive matter in a viscid or tenacious form, while the appetite remains keen, it may be presumed that the increased morbid action of the stomach and lacteal absorbents is not removed. It becomes then necessary to exhibit the hepatised ammonia, with an opiate and antimonial at night, and continue them until the active condition of the stomach is removed; the marks of which are, a scarcity and high coloured state of the urine with turbidness, furnishing on evaporation an offensively smelted, and saltish tasted residuum without tenacity, accompanied with a want of appetite and loathing of food. At this time the tongue and gums will be found to have lost their florid colour, and become pallid.

‘ When such a state occurs exercise is to be enjoined, a gradual return to the use of bread, and those vegetables and drinks which are the least likely to furnish saccharine matter, or become acid in the stomach. Should this period of the disease be overlooked, and the confinement and animal food rigidly persevered in, scurvy or something akin to it might be produced. That such might be the termination of the diabetes, the appearances which arose, more especially in our first case, render extremely probable. The gripings and offensive stools, the oiliness on the surface of the urine and its high colour, the foetid breath and saltish taste, the great lassitude and heaviness, with indifference to either eating, drinking, or moving, were strong marks of a state approaching to scurvy.’ Vol. i. p. 261.

The miscellaneous observations on scurvy, diabetes mellitus, and other diseases, supposed to depend on the affections of the stomach, contain many ingenious conjectures, which require, however, the additional support of facts. We admit that many of them are highly probable, and consequently claim more than common attention. There cannot, for instance, be much difficulty in allowing that different conditions of the body may proceed from different plans of regimen or diet, or that appropriate articles of food and medicine, by being thrown into the stomach, may cause a hyper-oxygenation or de-oxygenation of the system. But it remains to be proved (though we confess the reasoning here adduced renders it probable) that the diseases in question originate from these states.

The second volume of this performance is equally valuable with that which precedes it. The first part of it contains the communications of many ingenious practitioners in different parts of the kingdom. These show in what points of view the diabetes mellitus has been generally considered. Some of the cases also prove the opinion of Dr. Rollo to be well-founded. In this respect, the cases detailed by Dr. Gerard, of Liverpool, and Dr. Cleghorn, of Glasgow, are particularly satisfactory. That of the former, likewise, shows that there is no absorption of fluids by the skin in this disease, as has been frequently supposed.

The second part presents us with the results of different trials of the nitrous acid in the cure of lues venerea. These were conducted and drawn up by Mr. Cruikshank.

It had been suggested by Dr. Girtanner as probable, that the anti-venereal effects of mercurial preparations depended upon the disengagement of their combined oxygene. He does not appear, however, to have done any thing more than merely throw out the hint. But Mr. Scott, surgeon at Bombay, has called the attention of the profession more strongly to the subject, by discovering that the nitric acid is not only equal, but, in some respects, superior to mercury, in the cure of the venereal disease. And the experiments here detailed afford additional evidence of the utility of this remedy, and of other substances which contain a large portion of oxygene loosely combined.

‘ The first substances employed were acids, such as are known to contain much oxygene, and which parts with it readily; those already used have been the nitrous, oxygenated muriatic, and citric acids. It is well known that the basis of these are different, and the only thing which they have in common is oxygene, if therefore they should all produce the same, or nearly the same effect, on this disease, as well as on the constitution, the natural inference is, that this must depend upon their common principle.

‘ The only other substance which we have yet tried is the oxygenated muriate of pot-ash, a neutral salt, containing much oxygene, and which parts with it very readily.’ Vol. ii. p. 145.

From these trials there can be little doubt of the power of these substances over the disease in some states; but whether they be capable of permanently curing the disorder in all its stages, is yet to be determined.

The experiments and observations on the formation of the saccharine principle, are both judicious and useful. It is, perhaps, only by means of investigations made in this way, that truth can be attained. The fact of oxygene being absolutely necessary to the conversion of vegetable mucilage into sugar, is highly curious and interesting.

The remarks on the action of a particular morbid poison show the attention of the author, but do not fully explain the nature of the poison.

This publication is, in many respects, extremely interesting to those who are anxious for the improvement of medical science, as it comprehends many important hints and reflections, beside such as relate to the treatment of diabetes.

An Authentic Account of an Embassy from the King of Great-Britain to the Emperor of China. By Sir George Staunton Bart. (Concluded from Vol. XXI. p. 381.)

THE exterior politeness with which the Chinese potentate treated the British ambassador, was not accompanied with real amity. He viewed the strangers with an eye of jealousy; considered them as intruders and spies, rather than as friends; and was eager to dismiss them from his territories. To soften this apparent disgrace, our narrator observes, that the earl was 'aware of the propriety of fixing a limit to his embassy,' as the continued-residence of a foreign minister would have been a novelty in China.

Having brought back the ambassador to Pekin, sir George diversifies his narrative by remarks on the state of some of the arts among the Chinese. Of two arts very different from each other, he speaks in the following terms.

' It is not surprising that the method of making gunpowder, and of printing, should be discovered to the Chinese long before they were known by Europeans. With regard to the first, in whatever country nature creates nitre (one of the chief ingredients for making gunpowder,) in the greatest plenty, there its deflagrating quality is most likely to be first observed; and a few experiments founded on that observation, will lead to the composition that produces such sudden and violent effects. Nitre is the natural and daily produce of China and India, and there, accordingly, the knowledge of gunpowder seems to be coeval with that of the most distant historic events. Among the Chinese, it has been applied at all times to useful purposes, such as blasting rocks, and removing great obstructions, and to those of amusement in making a vast variety of fire-works. It was also used as a defence, by undermining the probable passage of the enemy, and blowing him up. But its force had not been directed through strong metallic tubes as it was by Europeans soon after they had discovered it. Yet this invention did not prove so decisive for those who availed themselves of it, as to mark distinctly in history, the precise period when its practice first took place. And tho, in imitation of Europe, it has been introduced into the armies of the East, other modes of warfare are sometimes still preferred to it.'

‘ In relation to the second method, or that of printing, important as are its effects in Europe; it is obvious, that as its object is only to multiply copies of the same writing, it could be sought for only in that society which produces many readers. The number of such would no doubt be increased wherever it were introduced; but where that number is become very considerable, from other causes tending to increase the civilized and lettered classes of society, the various attempts to supply their taste, would naturally lead to so simple an invention as the Chinese art of printing. It consists in nothing more than in cutting, in relief, the forms of the written characters on some compact wood, daubing afterwards those characters with a black glutinous substance, and pressing upon them different sheets of paper (itself a previous and ingenious invention), each sheet taking thus an impression of the characters upon which it had been laid. The art of engraving, for the gratification of the rich and powerful, had been carried to such perfection among many nations of antiquity, that the invention of printing, as here described, and coming so near to mere engraving, was likely soon to follow whenever the number of readers should be great as to insure reward to the inventor. The state of society in China, from the most early ages, rendered that number prodigious. Unlike to the rest of the world, where valour and military talents, occasionally united with natural eloquence, were originally the foundation of all wealth and greatness, while literature was little more than an amusement; the study of the written morals, history, and policy, of China, was the only road, not merely to power and honour, but to every individual employment in the state. The necessity, therefore, for such a multiplicity of copies for all persons in the middling as well as upper classes of life in the most populous of all empires, was the early and natural parent of the printing art, as it is still practised among them.’ Vol. iii. p. 292.

‘ The typographic art is of signal importance in China, as it has contributed to the preservation of the empire, ‘ in a state nearly uniform,’ for a long succession of ages.

‘ It has been the means of diffusing universally, and establishing among all ranks of men, certain fixed principles of right, and rules of moral rectitude, which serve as so many dikes or barriers against the tumult of human passions, and restrain the propensities of men in the plenitude of power. At every change in the government of the neighbouring countries not so circumstanced, success, like a torrent, sweeps before it, and levels all former arrangements of society. But in China, institutions and opinions survive the wreck of revolutions. The sovereign may be removed, his whole family cut off; but the manners and condition of the people remain the same. The throne itself is supported by maxims propagated from the press. The virtues of its possessor, are emblazoned by it to all his subjects. It gives him the vast advantage of directing their sentiments as he

thinks fit. His palaces, his gardens, his magnificence, create no envy towards a prince represented to be endowed with the most transcendent qualities; and to be employed in promoting, without intermission, the happiness of his people. Vol. ii. p. 301.

Hence it appears, that the Chinese press is a very powerful engine in the hands of despotism, and that the emperor, with interested meanness, assists in the propagation of a spirit of delusion. The general government of Chen-Lung, however, is said to be moderate.

The taste of the Chinese for the horticultural art may be estimated from the opinion of Mr. Barrow, who had a better opportunity, than any other attendant of the embassy, of seeing the gardens and pleasure-grounds of Yuen-min-yuen, an imperial seat near Pekin. At this villa,—

‘ the grand and agreeable parts of nature were separated, connected, or arranged in so judicious a manner, as to compose one whole, in which there was no inconsistency or unmeaning jumble of objects; but such an order and proportion as generally prevail in scenes entirely natural. No round or oval, square or oblong lawns, with the grass shorn off close to the roots, were to be found anywhere in those grounds. The Chinese are particularly expert in magnifying the real dimensions of a piece of land, by a proper disposition of the objects intended to embellish its surface; for this purpose, tall and luxuriant trees of the deepest green were planted in the fore ground, from whence the view was to be taken; whilst those in the distance gradually diminished in size and depth of colouring; and in general the ground was terminated by broken and irregular clumps of trees, whose foliage varied as well by the different species of trees in the group, as by the different times of the year in which they were in vigour; and oftentimes the vegetation was apparently old and stunted, making with difficulty its way through the clifts of rocks, either originally found or designedly collected upon the spot. The effect of intricacy and concealment, seemed also to be well understood by the Chinese. At Yuen-min-yuen, a slight wall was made to convey the idea of a magnificent building, when seen at a certain distance through the branches of a thicket. Sheets of made water, instead of being surrounded by sloping banks, like the glacis of a fortification, were occasionally hemmed in by artificial rocks, seemingly indigenous to the soil.

‘ The only circumstance which militated against the picturesque in the landscape of the Chinese, was the formal shape and glaring colouring of their buildings. Their undulating roofs are, however, an exception to the first part of the charge; and their projection throws a softening shadow upon the colonnade which supports it. Some of those towers, which Europeans calls pagodas, are well adapted objects for vistas, and are accordingly, for the most part, placed on elevated situations.’ Vol. ii. p. 306.

Mr. Barrow adds, what perhaps may excite surprise, that,—

‘ notwithstanding the just ideas which the Chinese conceive of ornamental gardening, and the taste with which they dispose of every object to the greatest advantage, they are not only totally ignorant of the principles of perspective, and of the gradations of light and shade, but are utterly insensible of their effect, as appeared from their own performances with the pencil. When, likewise, several portraits by the best European artists, intended as presents for the emperor, were exposed to view, the mandarines observing the variety of tints occasioned by the light and shade, asked whether the originals had the right and left sides of the figure of different colours? They considered the shadow of the nose as a great imperfection in the picture; and some supposed it to have been placed there by accident.’ Vol. ii. p. 307.

But, though the Chinese are disabled, either by a deficiency in the knowledge of perspective, or by a prejudice against it, from excelling as general painters, they are successful in the representation of individual objects.

‘ They are particularly happy’ (says sir George) ‘ in the delineation of natural history; the different subjects appearing not only correct, but with the features and attitudes of nature, and with an exactness so minute, that a Chinese painter sometimes reckons the number of scales upon a fish which he is to represent; the whole with a brilliancy of colouring, the more surprising, as it is found to be owing to the more patient and careful levigation of the same pigments which are used in Europe. Some European prints have been copied by them, and coloured with an effect which has attracted the admiration of the best judges.’ Vol. ii. p. 309.

Before the dismission of the English from Pekin, the ambassador had another interview with the emperor; but it was as fruitless as those which had taken place at Zhe-hol. It was even preceded and accompanied by treatment seemingly contemptuous; for it was intimated to the earl, that, though he was indisposed with the rheumatism, he was expected ‘ to go some miles upon the road to meet his imperial majesty;’ and, when he came within view, a *gracious message of civility* was delivered to him, with a request that he would ‘ retire without delay from the cold and damp of the morning,’ which might prove unfavourable to his disorder.

The answer of Chen-Lung to the letter of his Britannic majesty was at length delivered, with a variety of presents. This was the signal for departure. On pretence of doing honour to the visitants of China, but, in reality, for the purpose of watching their conduct, Sun-ta-Zhin, a person of high rank, was ordered to accompany them in their journey to the coast. This appointment was the less disagreeable to lord

Macartney, as the selected mandarin added a courteous liberality of disposition to the merits of judgment and learning.

In the return of the English down the Pei-ho, they remarked the apparent poverty of the inhabitants of the districts watered by that river, as far as could be judged from their dress and their houses; but the general cheerfulness of these rustics seemed to indicate,—

‘ that they were not pinched for the absolute necessities of life; and that they did not consider their condition as the consequence of any particular act of injustice done them; under a sense of which, men are seldom tranquil. Nor was their poverty owing to the barrenness of their lands, which their industry fertilized; but human population was too crowded to admit such a portion of ground to each family as could supply all the comforts of life. Little of it was reserved for rearing other animals, from a conviction, no doubt, of what is asserted to be true by Adam Smith, that “a corn field of moderate fertility, produces a much greater quantity of food for man, than the best pasture of equal extent; for tho its cultivation requires much more labour, yet the surplus that remains after replacing the seed, and maintaining all that labour, is likewise much greater.” On some small spots a few sheep are fed. A much greater number are brought from Tartary, as well as larger cattle. Such of the latter as are kept in China, have scarcely any other provender than the straw of corn cut small like chaff. A very scanty proportion of animal food serves as a relish to the vegetable diet of the common people. Milk, cheese, and butter, the principal resources of pastoral life, are little known to the Chinese.’ Vol. ii. p. 360.

Few opportunities of an accurate examination of the female form had hitherto occurred in China to our travellers; but Mr. Hickey had sufficient means of survey to authorise him to declare, that the persons of the women of an inferior class were, in general, destitute of elegance and of beauty.

‘ Their heads were large and round, and their stature low, apparently not above six lengths of the head. Their shape was wholly concealed from the neck downwards by loose dresses; they wore wide trousers from the waist to the small of the leg; and their feet and ankles were wrapped round with bandages.’ Vol. ii. p. 366.

To these remarks of the painter, the secretary of the embassy adds, that

‘ A custom which is said to subsist in China, must render beauty rare in the lower classes of life. It is assured, that the young maidens distinguished by their faces or their figure, are taken or purchased from their parents at the age of fourteen, for the use of the powerful and opulent. Accident had thrown a few of these within

view of the gentlemen of the embassy; who considered them, from the fairness and delicacy of their complexions, and the beauty and regularity of their features, as entitled to admiration. Some of those who did not appear indiscriminately abroad, but whom curiosity impelled to quit their houses to see the extraordinary strangers pass, were sometimes hooted back by Chinese of the other sex, as if reproaching them for exposing themselves to the sight of the barbarians.' Vol. ii. p. 366.

Instead of returning by the Yellow Sea, the earl took the route of the province of Shan-tung. At Lin-sin-choo, he quitted the river Eu-ho for the grand canal. This ancient and celebrated work extends about five hundred miles, not only through heights and over valleys, but across lakes and rivers. It is irregular in width and in depth; and, for the regulation of the quantity of water in it, there are numerous flood-gates, which merely consist of planks let down one upon another, by grooves cut into the sides of the piers of stone that project from each bank, a space being left in the middle for the passage of the vessels.

In various parts of the country bordering on the canal, were morasses which rendered the usual cultivation impracticable. In such situations, 'the Chinese (says our author) exhibit new instances of industry and ingenuity.'

'They form rafts or hurdles of bamboo, which they float upon the water, or rest upon morasses; on these rafts they spread a layer of soil, from whence they raise various kinds of vegetables, in like manner as successful attempts are made, in miniature, to produce small vegetables on ship-board, by laying seeds on moistened soil, or even on pieces of flannel, placed in frames, and wetted. By these means the radical leaves, for example, of mustard sprout up quickly, and are particularly grateful to persons long absent from land.'

'Beside this method of raising a crop upon the water, the lakes, rivers, and canals of China, are converted so assiduously to such other useful purposes, either in cultivating vegetables growing from their bottom, or in catching, by so many means, the birds that swim upon its surface, or the fish that exist under it, or the other animals which creep upon the bottom, or by fertilizing the lands by irrigation from them, and by the cheap and easy communication which they afford between the different districts of the empire: thus saving so much land, otherwise necessary for broad roads, as well as so much labour to make, and keep them in repair, which is now employed in agriculture; and so much more land, which would have been necessary to produce nourishment for the cattle, otherwise required to carry travellers and burdens on high roads; that it may be considered to be a moderate calculation, to place that element upon an equality, in productive

value, with the solid parts of the empire, of the same superficial dimensions.' Vol. ii. p. 417.

In the province of Kiang-man, Sou-choo-foo strongly attracted the attention of the travellers ; and it therefore claims our notice.

' The streets of the city of Sou-choo-foo were divided, like Venice, by branches from the principal canal. Over each of those branches was erected an elegant stone bridge. The fleet of the embassy was nearly three hours in passing the suburbs of Sou-choo-foo, before they arrived at the city walls, under which was drawn up an immense number of vessels. In one ship-builder's yard were sixteen upon the stocks close to each other, each of the burden of about two hundred tons. In the walls of the city are turned several arches, through which the canal passes.

Sou-choo-foo appears to be an uncommonly large and populous city. The houses were generally well built and handsomely decorated. The inhabitants, most of whom were clad in silk, appeared cheerful and prosperous ; tho it was understood that they still regretted the removal of the court from Nan-kin, in their neighbourhood, which had formerly been the capital of the empire. Nothing, indeed, but very strong political considerations, could have induced the sovereign to prefer the northern regions of Pe-che-lee, on the confines of Tartary, to this part of his dominions, on which all the advantages of climate, soil, and productions, have been lavished by nature with an unsparing hand ; and where nature itself has been improved by industry and ingenuity. Sou-choo-foo has been termed by travellers the paradise of China. Among the natives it is a common saying, that " heaven is above them ; but on the earth they have Sou-choo-foo."

' The gentlemen of the embassy also thought the women of Sou-choo-foo handsomer, fairer, and dressed in a better taste, than most of those they had seen to the northward ; where the necessity of long toiling in the open air on a less fertile soil, and of sharing in the rudest labours with the men, the confined and homely fare which serves them for subsistence, and the little leisure left them for attending to their persons, may have contributed to darken their complexions, as well as to harden and disfigure many of their features, more than could be effected by the occasional rays of a more southern sun falling upon the females, at the distance of thirty degrees from the equator. The ladies of Sou-choo-foo are sometimes distinguished by a small cap on the forehead brought down to a peak between the eyebrows, made of black satin, and set with jewels. They likewise wear ear pendants of crystal or gold.

' At a short distance from Sou-choo-foo is the beautiful lake of Tai-hoo, surrounded by a chain of picturesque hills. This lake, which furnishes fish for the inhabitants of Sou-choo-foo, serves

them also as a place of publick resort and recreation. Many of the pleasure-boats were rowed each by a single female.' Vol. ii. p. 427.

The capital of Che-kiang, called Han-choo-foo, where the ambassador soon after arrived, was a more populous and commercial town than Sou-choo-foo; but the houses were not so well built. At this city a separation of the party took place. The earl, with a majority of the company, proceeded towards Canton; while the rest repaired to Chu-fan to embark in the Hindostan.

In the journey to Canton, the sugar-cane and the tea-plant were observed. The canes are planted in rows with great regularity; and the earth is heaped up about the roots. By a mechanical contrivance and the labour of buffaloes, the juice is extracted from them; and the canes then serve as fuel for boiling it. Of the tea-plant, the

'perpendicular growth is impeded, for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring, and twice afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up almost from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is bushy like a rose tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Every information received concerning the tea plant concurred in affirming that its qualities depended both upon the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of green tea, is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid. The tea is packed in large chests lined with very thin plates of lead, and the dried leaves

of some large vegetable. It is too true, that the tea is pressed down into those chests by the naked feet of Chinese labourers, as grapes are pressed by the wooden shoes of European peasants; in which last case, the juices are purified by the subsequent fermentation. Notwithstanding this uncleanly operation of Chinese packers, the upper ranks in China are as fond of tea as the people are, and particularly solicitous in their choice of it. That of a good quality is dearer in Pekin than in London. It is sometimes made up into balls. A strong black extract also, is frequently made from it. Many virtues are attributed to tea, which is in universal use throughout the empire.' Vol. ii. p. 464.

In the manufacture of porcelain, a species of fine granite is used by the Chinese: a material answering to the English soap-rock is likewise an ingredient; and the asbestos and gypsum are also said to enter into the composition. It appears, that a great misfortune is occasionally sustained by a porcelain-manufacturer. From the want of some precise method of regulating and ascertaining the heat within the furnaces, 'their whole contents are sometimes baked into one solid and useless mass.' Such a disaster might be prevented by the use of the thermometer of our countryman Wedgwood.

This journey was prosecuted alternately by water and by land. In advancing over the space between one river and another, at a considerable distance from all great roads,

' not a mile was travelled without a village; nor a spot observed, except mere rocks, or perpendicular heights, that was not under cultivation. The villages were not surrounded by walls, but were adorned with handsome gateways at their extremities. The rocky places appeared to have been denuded of the earth which had covered them formerly, in order to place it on a surface where it might become more conveniently a medium for the nutriment of plants. Where the face of the hill or mountain is not nearly perpendicular to the level surface of the earth, the slope is converted into a number of terraces one above another, each of which is supported by mounds of stone. By this management it is not uncommon to see the whole face of a mountain completely cultivated to the summit. These stages are not confined to the culture of any particular vegetable. Pulse, grain, yams, sweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, and a variety of other culinary plants are produced upon them. A reservoir is sunk in the top of the mountain. The rain water collected in it is conveyed by channels successively to the different terraces placed upon the mountain's sides.' Vol. ii. p. 473.

A curious water-wheel is described. Two posts are fixed in the bed of a river; and they support the axis of a large wheel, consisting of two unequal rims, both of which dip in the stream, while the opposite segment of the wheel rises above the elevated bank. Between the rims and the spokes, are

woven pieces of basket-work, which, meeting the current, turn the wheel round. The rims are furnished with tubes, by which the water is conveyed into a wide trough for the purpose of agricultural fertilisation. This description, we believe, is as perspicuous as the more copious account which sir George Staunton has given.

The women, in some parts, are even yoked to the plough. In one of the southern provinces,

' the women of the lower rank are freed from the prejudice of little feet ; and are so remarkably robust and laborious, that peasants of other provinces have been known to come to purchase what they call, a working wife, in Kiang-see. A farmer in that province has been seen to drive, with one hand, a plough, to which his wife was yoked, while he sowed the seed with the other hand in drills. The soil, indeed, was loose, and the plough of very light materials and construction ; the task imposed upon the woman appeared to an European eye altogether unbecoming, when not borne equally by the other sex. The wives were distinguished from the maidens, by the latter allowing the hair near the forehead to hang down towards the eyebrows, while the former had all theirs bound together upon the crown of the head.' Vol. ii. p. 505.

A remarkable rock was seen in the approach to Canton.

' On one side of the river was an immense rock of gray coarse marble, estimated to be about six hundred feet in height. In a large rent or fissure close to the water's edge, and accessible only by boats, is a temple, inhabited by Ho-shaung, or priests of Fo, who worship there a variety of chiefs or heroes deified, and of virtues and passions personified. This temple consisted of several apartments, one over the other, of considerable height, consisting chiefly of excavations made into the rock. Above them, in a large natural fissure, was an immense mass of stalactites not less, apparently, than a ton in weight, out of which proceeded a vast number of ramifications.' Vol. ii. p. 516.

During a part of this journey, a mandarin who had been appointed viceroy of Canton was the companion and guide of the ambassador, who had no reason to complain of want of respect in the treatment which he received from this friendly governor. The public honours paid to the earl concurred with the personal attentions of the viceroy to produce an alteration in the deportment of the inhabitants of Canton towards the English, to whom they had in general behaved with haughtiness and insolence. Two edicts which were promulgated by the governor had also a good effect in checking insult and imposition. In his favourable disposition towards the English, the viceroy is supposed to have been partly influenced

' by the opinion he had conceived of their science and acquirements. Accident contributed toward inspiring him with such sen-

timents. The custom of inhaling the vapour of tobacco, as well as that of taking it in powder, is very general in China, and extends to the highest ranks. The viceroy once wanting to light his pipe in the absence of his attendants, the ambassador took from his pocket a small phosphoric bottle, which opening, he soon kindled a match that answered the purpose wanted. The singularity of a person's appearing to carry fire about him without damage, attracted the viceroy's attention. His excellency explained the phænomenon to him in general terms, and made him a present of the bottle, which was not a little valuable in his eyes. This trifling incident led to a conversation on other curious subjects, from whence it was sufficiently apparent how much the Chinese, tho' skilful and dextrous in particular arts, were behind the western nations in many philosophical and useful branches of science. The ambassador was not sorry to have the opportunity of mentioning some of the modern attainments of Europeans, which were the most likely to affect the imagination on being first related: such as the method of ascending in the atmosphere by the assistance of balloons filled with attenuated air; the apparatus for restoring suspended animation; and the operations for giving sight to the blind, in cases of cataract, by its extraction or depression. Doctor Dinwiddie gave lectures on electricity, and other parts of natural philosophy, which were attended by the gentlemen of the factory, and by such of the natives who knew a little English, and who were much struck with several of the experiments, tho' they did not always comprehend the explanation, or perfectly understand the language, of the lecturer. The consciousness of superior knowledge and acquirements in Europeans, necessarily tended to procure for them the admiration, esteem, and consequent good treatment of the natives. Doctor Gillan was of material use to several of the mandarines, in prescribing for their complaints; and some persons high in office, came purposely to Canton in order to consult him.' Vol. ii. p. 533.

After some continuance at Canton and Macao, the ambassador commenced his homeward voyage in the spring of the year 1794; and, on the 6th of September, he disembarked in the harbour of Portsmouth.

As some concluding remarks, on the result of the voyage and the embassy, will necessarily be expected, we observe, in the first place, that the information which we have obtained is far from being complete. Undoubtedly, from the perusal of this work, we know more of the manners and customs of the Chinese, of their arts, institutions, and policy, than we before could boast. But many points are still unknown; and much important intelligence is still requisite for the satisfaction of European curiosity.

We proceed to remark, that the narrative, upon the whole, is interesting, and that the information appears in general to be accurate, and is communicated with perspicuity: but the

style is inelegant, and frequently vulgar and incorrect; and, though a spirit of philosophy pervades many of the observations, others are barren and trite. Of the embellishments it may be said, that the representations of Chen-Lung and lord Macartney, and the *vignettes* in the two volumes, are neat engravings; but the folio plates which accompany the work are, for the most part, badly executed.

We learn, among other circumstances, that the extent of China, within the great wall, comprehends 1,297,999 square miles, and that the population of the country amounts to 333 millions. The latter calculation, however, is far too great to be admitted as certain; but it was given by an intelligent native, a person of reputed veracity, who affirmed that it was justified by official documents. The revenues are estimated at about 66 millions of pounds sterling. If we compare the population of the empire with this account of the revenue, we may consider the Chinese as being very lightly taxed by their sovereign. The military establishment consists of a million of infantry, and 800,000 cavalry. As a prince of Tartarian descent fills the throne, we need not be surprised to find, that the chief officers of the army are Tartars; but, in giving the troops of that nation a higher pay than that which their Chinese fellow-soldiers receive, as well as in other instances, the emperor acts with impolitic partiality. The Chinese acutely feel the degradation to which they are thus subjected; and murmurs against the Tartars are frequent.

It appears, that the despotism of the government is in some measure restrained by a regard for ancient institutions. Councils are established, whose judgment is guided by a body of doctrine, transmitted from age to age as a code of wisdom and justice. To the suggestions of these assemblies the emperor, it is said, usually conforms. But, as Tartars bear the sway in most of these councils, we may suppose that the venerable code is not always strictly regarded.

The laws of the country are not complex; and pleaders or attorneys are rarely employed. The administration of justice, however, is not pure or incorrupt. The judges are paid by both parties; and, as the fees are not regulated by a certain standard, the person who is more opulent or more liberal than his adversary has the best chance of gaining his cause. But the councils of inspection occasionally remonstrate against judicial partiality; and unjust magistrates are sometimes checked in their career. The usual punishments of offenders are flagellation, fine, imprisonment, and exile. For murder and other heinous crimes, individuals are strangled or beheaded.

The classes of men in this empire may be reduced to three. These are, men of letters, the followers of trade and mechanical pursuits, and the cultivators of the earth. All the civil

offices of the state are conferred on individuals of the first class; and those of the second are less respected than the agricultural subjects of the state. Wealth alone is little regarded; and, indeed, it is too much divided to allow many to be extremely opulent. The distribution of it is considerably promoted by that custom which renders all the sons in a family the joint heirs of their father.

The manners of the Chinese are formal and ceremonious in public; but, in private society, their deportment is easy and familiar. In their appearance before strangers, they display great confidence and self-sufficiency; but, to their countrymen of superior rank, their behaviour is fawning and servile. In no country, we believe, are habits of submission and subordination more deeply impressed on the minds of the people.

Industry is a striking feature in the character of this nation; and that quality is particularly applied to agriculture: but the general attention which is paid to this employment does not prevent the occasional pressure of famine. When such a misfortune happens, the emperor appears as the father of his people: he remits the taxes to the poor, and opens his granaries for their relief.

Calmness and moderation seem habitual to the Chinese. They are cautious and circumspect, and too frequently artful and hypocritical. They are jealous of strangers, as if they thought individuals of all nations inclined to take advantage of others.

The women are retained in a state of subserviency. Their education being neglected, they look up to their fathers or their husbands for the direction of their conduct. When a wife is not prolific, her husband may marry another before her death; and it is not unusual to keep concubines, whose children are indulged with the rights of legitimate birth.

Though the Chinese may be deemed a literary nation, they are not eminent for scientific skill. Of mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, and other departments of science, they have merely a slight knowledge. With medicine, and the surgical art, they are very imperfectly acquainted; but we must admit, that their early practice of inoculation does them some credit.

Several of their mechanical contrivances are ingenious; and they make various articles of curious workmanship in wood and in metals. In the art of casting iron they excel; their silk and cotton manufactures are neat; and they are remarkably expert in the imitation of European work.

With regard to the effect of a very expensive embassy, we are sorry to be obliged to affirm, that it is far from being satisfactory. Sir George Staunton dwells on a particular ground of jealousy conceived by the Chinese, who imagined that troops

had been sent from Bengal to assist the rajah of Napaul against the imperial army. This idea, however, was ill-founded. The most important and permanent ground of suspicion, though the baronet has not thought proper to discuss it, may be referred to the history of British India. Chen-Lung must have recollect^d, that, at the commencement of his reign, the English in that country were mere merchants; that the ambition of the East-India company was at length inflamed with the hopes of territorial possession; that contests between native princes were artfully fomented; that nabobs were plundered and enslaved, tribes were exterminated, and flourishing provinces were seized. These circumstances were not calculated to give the emperor very high ideas of British justice and moderation. With such impressions, he could not be expected to favour his visitants to the extent of their wishes. He was not very eager to treat of the business of the embassy; and, though he expressed his wish that a British minister might soon re-appear in China, a considerable time will probably elapse before a commercial treaty, or a friendly association, will be formed between the courts of London and Pekin.

The Poems of Caius Valerius Catullus, in English Verse: with the Latin Text revised, and Classical Notes. Prefixed are Engravings of Catullus, and his Friend Cornelius Nepos. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.

THE translator remarks in his Preface, that,

‘ notwithstanding several of the poems of Catullus have already appeared in an English dress, we have hitherto had no complete translation of that Roman classic.’ P. i.

He adds:

‘ whence such a circumstance should arise, it is impossible to conjecture.’ P. i.

To us the reason appears obvious. The majority of these poems are worthless; and the chief excellence of those that have ranked Catullus so high among the Roman poets, consists in a peculiar happiness of expression, of which perhaps no translation could convey an adequate idea. Indeed, the man whose abilities should be equal to the task, would be inexcusable in so employing himself.

In the present version, we have all the beastliness of Catullus. For this, the translator shall allege his own excuse.

‘ Those indecencies occurring so frequently in our poet, which I have constantly preserved in the original, and ventured in some

way to translate, may be thought to require apology; for I have given the whole of Catullus without reserve. The chaste reader might think them best omitted; but the inquisitive scholar might wish to be acquainted even with the ribaldry, and broad lampoon of Roman times.

‘ When an ancient classic is translated, and explained, the work may be considered as forming a link in the chain of history: history should not be falsified, we ought therefore to translate him somewhat fairly; and when he gives us the manners of his own day, however disgusting to our sensations, and repugnant to our natures they may oftentimes prove, we must not in translation suppress, or even too much gloss them over, through a fastidious regard to delicacy. I have endeavoured throughout the work to convey our poet’s meaning in its fullest extent, without overstepping the modesty of language.’ Vol. i. p. x.

Plausible as these reasons may appear, we cannot think them sufficiently strong to justify the task of translating poems so totally destitute of genius and decency as are many of this author. They are, however, too disgusting to be productive of evil; and, whatever charm they may possess in the original from terseness of language, it is totally lost in the English version.

We read the better poems of Catullus with delight: we turn to the translation; the words are changed; and, though the import be the same, the spell is broken. The triteness of the language exposes the triteness of the idea; and the merit is destroyed by an expletive and awkward word, or a mere rhyming line. Every classical reader will recollect with pleasure the beautiful lines —

O quid solutis est beatius curis?
Cum mens onus reponit, ac peregrino
Labore fessi venimus larem ad nostrum,
Desideratoque acquiescimus lecto.

The beauty is lost in the translation; and an expletive line wretchedly concludes it.

‘ O, what so sweet as cares redress’d!
When the tir’d mind lays down its load;
When, with each foreign toil oppres’d,
We reach at length our own abode;
On our own wish’d-for couch recline,
And taste the bliss of sleep divine!’ Vol. i. p. 87.

The excellence of the little poem *ad Cornificium*, consists in its abruptness and brevity.

‘ Male est, Cornifici, tuo Catullo;
Male est mehercule, et laboriose;

Magisque, et magis, in dies et horas.
Irascor tibi: sic meos amores?
Quem tu, quod minimum facillimumque est,
Quâ solatus es adlocutione?
Paulum quidlibet adlocutionis,
Mœstius lacrymis Simonideis.'

‘ Hard, Cornificius, I declare,
Hard is the lot I'm doom'd to bear!
And ev'ry day, and ev'ry hour,
I live but to endure the more!
My injur'd heart indignant burns;
Why meets my love such cold returns?
Say, tho' thy words can sweetly flow,
Have they once sooth'd my bosom's woe?
Words, moving as those tearful lays
Which sang the sad Simonides!’ Vol. i. p. 106.

The line

‘ Quem mulcent auræ, firmat sol, educat imber,’
is rendered,

‘ Which, while it drinks pure gales, and fostering dews,
Drinks the strong sun-shine that its bosom warms.

The translator's pronunciation may be supposed to be very bad, when we meet, in every page, with such rhymes as *bate*, *intreat*; *dear*, *share*; *nature*, *creature*; *convey'd*, *sped*; *sea*, *bay*; &c.

The work is valuable as a correct edition of Catullus with good notes. As a translation, it has the merit, if it be a merit, of representing all the ideas of the original.

Specimens of British Minerals, selected from the Cabinet of Philip Rashleigh, of Menabilly, in the County of Cornwall, Esq. M. P. F. R. S. and F. A. S. With general Descriptions of each Article. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1797.

WE consider this work as peculiarly valuable, and, to the naturalist, highly interesting. The British minerals have not been properly described; and Cornwall, rich in mineralogical treasures, has, till lately, wanted a scientific historian. Dr. Borlase has done whatever could be expected from industry, attention, and *general* knowledge; Mr. Klaproth has added scientific remarks * and some valuable analyses; but a want of

* Published in the *Schriften Natur-Forschender Freunde*, or *Transactions of the Society of Friendly Naturalists*, at Berlin, translated into English by Dr. Groschke; published in 1787, and noticed in the *Critical Review*, Vol. LXVII. p. 9.

discrimination in the former, and the too concise and limited descriptions of the latter, have left the subject in almost its original obscurity. The mineralogical school of Werner cannot boast of many pupils among the English chemists; and the chemical systems require a dexterity of hand, scientific skill, and an apparatus of no common extent, to determine the nature of a given fossil. Much information, however, is gained by experience; and the value of the present work, derived from its accurate plates, will greatly assist the student in the acquisition of that experience, at a distance from well-chosen collections. To represent, with fidelity and effect, the forms and texture of mineral bodies, has hitherto been rarely attempted: the usual representations have scarcely excelled the naked outlines of mathematical diagrams. The first attempt to give a proper display of the texture of hard bodies was, we believe, the *Conchology* of George Geve, painter at Hamburg, published in 1755; but this was soon discontinued, and eclipsed by the splendid 'Recueil de Coquillages,' published by Regenfus, under the patronage of the king of Denmark, in 1758. We mention the latter, as, besides the shape and relief of the shells, which are admirably delineated, we can almost distinguish their texture and hardness. Various tinted drawings of fossils may occasionally be observed; but they are indifferently executed. The first successful attempt was the representation of the crystal of wood-tin in M. Klaproth's work; and, since that time, we have seen some striking and elegant delineations of fossils in the late volumes of Jacquin's 'Collectanea.' They are chiefly the stones on which the lichens described by him grow; but are executed so happily, that it is easy, almost at a glance, to ascertain their nature.

Mr. Rashleigh's very elegant and rich collection at Menabilly is well known to the mineralogical traveller; and he has extended its utility by the plates before us, which, though almost the first specimens of tinted plates of minerals in this country, leave us little to hope in the progress of the art. We regret that the names of the artists are not mentioned.

The first five plates represent the tin ores. The first plate, which contains the wood-tin ores, is peculiarly exact and discriminative in the forms and colouring. The fourth and fifth plates, containing shining crystals of tin ore, are also very well coloured: the crystals are thrown forward, and the nature of the base distinguished with admirable effect.

The twelve following plates represent the copper ores in different forms. These are all truly excellent. That which represents native copper, though not the most striking in the effect, seems to have required the nicest attention; and in coloured plates, 'not to overstep the modesty of nature,' not to

sacrifice likeness to splendour, is a very unusual excellence.

A few iron ores, the greater number of which are *not* natives of Cornwall, are delineated in the eighteenth plate, which contains also the grey copper ore in triangular figures, like the grey silver ore.

The second figure of the nineteenth plate (which exhibits ores of antimony from Cornwall) is coloured with great delicacy. The ores of calamine, in the twentieth, are equally well represented.

The twenty-first and twenty-second plates depict different forms of pyrites, of which the last, containing one figure only—the feathered pyrites—deserves particular notice.

The twenty-third and twenty-fourth plates contain the fluors; the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth, calcareous spars from different parts of England; the twenty-seventh, a singular stone, covered on one side with crystals of quartz, and on the other with those of calcareous spar.

The feathered gypsum of the twenty-eighth plate (the snow-fossil of the miners) is very well delineated. Other representations of gypsum occur in the twenty-ninth plate. Lead ores, and some beautiful tin and copper ores, occur in the other plates.

We have engaged in this particular description of Mr. Rashleigh's publication, because the attempt is new, is executed with great fidelity and delicacy, and truly merits the attention of the fossilist. It is not difficult to refer each specimen to its species in the systems of mineralogy. But we could have wished that this had been done by the author, and that M. Klaproth's analyses had been more frequently quoted, than we perceive them to be.

On the whole, however, this is a very splendid and elegant work, which will afford, to the cultivators of mineralogy, a high degree of pleasure and instruction.

An Essay on the Revenues of the Church of England. 8vo. 5s.
Boards. Rivingtons. 1796.

THE question concerning the utility of a religious establishment, when placed on its proper basis, can be answered, we conceive, in the affirmative only; but how far the revenue, appropriated for its support, may be at the disposal of the legislature, is a distinct consideration. Without entering into a formal discussion of this point, we will venture to represent the ecclesiastical revenues as being so firmly established by regularity of grant, that the legislature, whose power is incompetent to levy a tax on any man's property without his

virtual consent, can have no right to alienate the property of the church, or to dispose of the freehold, even with the consent of the immediate possessors, who are no more than tenants for life. The question weighs not with us, as it relates to the church, but as it involves the interest of every individual. If the united wills of king, lords, and commons, can deprive any members of the community, whether corporate or distinct, of their property, it follows, that king, lords, and commons, instead of being makers and executors of laws for the preservation of property in the hands of its owners, are ultimately the fountain of property in themselves; an absurd and monstrous doctrine!

Proceeding to the *Essay* before us, we find the subject considered under three points of view, as it is the intention of the writer to prove,—

‘ I. That the clergy of the church of England have a natural, precedented and legal right to the revenues with which they are endowed —

‘ II. That, though these revenues may, collectively, appear large, they afford a very moderate competency to the many thousands whose subsistence depends upon them—And,

‘ III. That these revenues, particularly the part of them arising from tithes, are neither burthensome to the individual, nor injurious to the public.’ p. 27.

The author endeavours to establish his leading position on ‘the concurrent opinion and practice of the ancients—the polity of the Jews, instituted by God himself—and the positive laws of the kingdom.’

In respect, however, to the first of these grounds, to us it appears altogether irrelevant; for, if the concurrence of opinion and practice of the ancients be a sufficient plea for the continuance of an usage, it becomes difficult to say what the same authority will not sanction. Nor does the argument, drawn from the polity of the Jews, more pertinently apply to the subject; inasmuch as the same reasoning would make *circumcision*, and every part of the Jewish ritual, equally obligatory. The strength of the third principle, however, compensates the weakness of the two others.

A variety of interesting extracts might be given; but we shall content ourselves with one.

‘ It hath been contended, that the payment of tithes bears so hard on the skill, labour and expence of the farmer, that he hath no encouragement to improve his waste lands, or even to make any improvements on those which are already in a state of cultivation: because, the greater his exertions are, the greater will be his expence; and which expence will be farther virtually enhanced, by

the deduction of the tenth part of his increased gross produce: and that, therefore, it cannot be expected, that farmers will be induced to attempt multiplying their increase, under such apparent and certain disadvantages.

‘ This, it must be confessed, is one of the most plausible of the several objections, which are urged against the payment of tithes. But, it is built upon an error, which pervades almost every publication, which of late years hath issued from the press, in demonstration of the burthen and evil consequences of tithes. And this error consists in a supposition, or an assumption, that tithes, in general, throughout the kingdom, are taken in kind, or compounded for at their utmost value,—than which, nothing can be more contrary to the fact itself.

‘ The clergy, unless prevented by the unfairness or obstinate proceedings of their parishioners, for the most part, let their tithes at a moderately rated composition; and that composition, being usually fixed at an incumbent’s first entering on his benefice, most frequently continues during his whole incumbency, and is augmented only by a rise in the rental of the parish; and a very great number of the clergy do not avail themselves even of this circumstance. Others again enter into compositions for longer or shorter terms of years, and always at such rates, as secure to the farmer ample advantages, both in the common course of cultivation, or in any extraordinary exertions or improvements, which he might be inclined to make upon his farm.

‘ Among the impro priators, the practice of taking tithes in kind, unless by compulsion, does not much prevail, as they most commonly abide by a composition for a longer or shorter term of years: and, even amongst those impro priators, who are averse to entering into a composition for any length of time, they seldom take their tithes in kind, but a temporary composition for them; which, though varying from year to year, and, therefore, bearing a nearer proportion to the value of the crop on the ground, is, nevertheless, very considerably in favour of the farmer.

‘ Thus, the advantages to be derived, from extra exertions, or in the common course of cultivation, the farmer, (as it is presumable, he knows, what he is about to do,) may secure before hand, by fortifying himself within the line of a reasonable composition. And, as to the advantages resulting from the improvement of uncultivated land, he is not to be informed, that he is discharged, by act of parliament, from any additional tithe charge, on account of that improvement, for the first seven years.’ p. 351.

To those who wish to understand the subject, this tract will afford essential information.

A Compendious System of Astronomy, in a Course of Familiar Lectures; in which the Principles of that Science are clearly elucidated, so as to be intelligible to those who have not studied the Mathematics. Also Trigonometrical and Celestial Problems, with a Key to the Ephemeris, and a Vocabulary of the Terms of Science used in the Lectures; which latter are explained agreeably to their Application in them. By Margaret Bryan. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Kearsley. 1797.

THERE are in the present times two systems contending with each other for the preference in female education. The one assumes certain fictitious rights of women as the basis, and endeavours to place the fair sex on a par with men in intellectual acquirements: the other is more indulgent to the female character, and has no end in view, but to tinge it with those superficial accomplishments, which may qualify it to amuse the idle hours of men of business or of pleasure. The first, aiming at too much, would employ the whole of that time in pursuits peculiarly belonging to the men, part of which should certainly be given to the duties of domestic life. If this system should succeed, and our women should be turned into men, who are to soothe the wrinkled brow of care, and afford relaxation after the tedious hours of intense study? The female character cannot be formed in the harsh mould of a manly education: very few women will be found capable of going through the first process; and, after the utmost efforts, they will in general fall far short of the common attainments of the higher forms at a great school, or of the fresh-men in an university. In the second system, on the other hand, justice is not done to the minds of females. A moderate cultivation of their intellects will not diminish their charms; and they may, without disadvantage to themselves, learn enough to despise the idle trifling and nonsense of the lordling or banker's clerk, whose natural insipidity must still be lowered to make them agreeable, in their own estimation, to female company. The most elegant woman in the court of Louis the Fifteenth was scarcely known in the circle to devote her hours to the Newtonian philosophy; yet her dress was not the less elegant, nor were her manners the less engaging, because she dedicated to mental improvement some of those hours, which the greater part of her female companions bestowed on frivolity. At the levee, or in the ball-room, no one was more witty or more lively.

Between the systems a third may be formed, in which regard shall be equally paid to personal and mental accomplishments; which shall accommodate knowledge to the sensibility of the female character; and which shall not give occasion to

pedantry by too great an attention to abstruse studies, or, by the pursuit only of trivial accomplishments, become the school of coquetry. The system, in short, should elevate the virgin to the idea of being the rational companion of man, not the mere slave to his wanton pleasures. The amiable authoress of the work before us seems to have formed herself upon this plan; and no one seems better qualified for the task which she has undertaken. We have here the substance of ten lectures given by her in her school. They contain those subjects in astronomy, which could be rendered intelligible to her young hearers; and throughout are interspersed reflections on the goodness and wisdom of providence, calculated to make durable impression on minds of sensibility. They are naturally diffuse, because it is a long time before a young person can acquire a precise notion of the science; and a more scientific mode of proving each proposition might deter the pupil from the pursuit of knowledge. A young lady, who has read with an instructor these lectures, cannot fail of attaining enlarged views of the universe in which she is placed; and she will be well qualified for entering upon other works of science. But the generality of young females will not be desirous of proceeding much farther.

We shall give one extract as a specimen of the work.

‘ In Thales we have an example of the utility of observation, judiciously taken, and how a mind prone to study, rises progressively from one truth to another, and the extension the mental power is capable of, which ought to excite in us the like application in all we attempt to investigate.

‘ I love to trace the gradual progressive elevation of ideas, from their first dawn, in those minds that have indicated such a sublimity of sentiment and clearness of intellect as are not common; I cannot help participating in the satisfaction they must have felt, who by a due cultivation of their understanding, have rendered their fellow creatures such essential services,— and I honor them from my heart.

‘ The manner in which the great philosopher Thales determined those phænomena, the discovery of which is ascribed to him, was by due observation of the stars under which the sun passed in its apparent revolution, and those passed by the moon. He perceived that they did not both pass exactly under the same, but that the orbit of the moon cut that of the sun in two points, deviating a little from it on each side, and that it did not always cut the orbit of the sun exactly in the same place each month, but that these variations returned nearly in the same order after a certain number of revolutions of the moon.

‘ Whether this great man was sensible of the benevolent design of our Creator in this arrangement of the nodes of the moon, is

not said, but it seems an impeachment of his judgment, derogatory to his character, to suppose him ignorant of the advantages accruing to all the inhabitants of the earth from this wise ordination of providence, who, but for it, would, once a fortnight, be deprived of necessary illumination.

‘ As we are certain that he understood the consequence of their being in a direct line, by his calculating the time of the eclipses, it must have been impossible for the utility arising from the deviations from a right line to have escaped his observation.

‘ This discovery of the cause of eclipses relieved the people from the dreadful apprehensions formerly attendant on those temporary deprivations of the sun’s light, which they had supposed to be occasioned by the wrath of God.

‘ How ignorant the Medes and Lydians were of the cause of these phænomena, is evident from the effect a total eclipse of the sun had on them in the time of a battle, in the heat of which the sun being suddenly obscured to the place at which they fought, they desisted from all hostilities, and all animosity subsiding on the evidence, as they thought, of divine indignation, in which they were mutually involved, as recorded by Herodotus.

‘ Geography was also much benefited by this discovery, particularly by the observation of lunar eclipses, which served to give juster ideas of the distances of countries.

‘ Thus, suppose two spectators placed at different parts of the globe, and each prepared to notice the instant of the moon’s entering into the shadow of our earth; also the time of its total obscuration, and of its emersion. Then on comparing the two times noted by each observer, they were enabled to judge of the comparative distances of the places from each other, east and west, even supposing them only acquainted with the apparent motion of the heavens. Lunar eclipses also served to ascertain the rotundity of the earth.

‘ Before this time, the earth was often supposed to be a flat surface, surrounded with water; which opinion was strengthened by the writings of the poets, who always expressed the sun’s rising above the ocean, and setting in it to cool himself.

‘ This vulgar prejudice was shaken off by those of the Ionian school, who becoming acquainted with the circumstances of the moon shining by borrowed light, perceived by the form of the earth’s shadow projected on it, that it must be globular.

‘ The Ionians seem to have been an ingenious and sagacious people, and to have possessed great steadiness of character; probably the salubrity of the climate might contribute to these advantages, as we know that soundness of constitution is generally accompanied by strength of understanding, and perseverance in all the mind seeks after.

‘ Thales was so happy as to find in his disciple Anaximander the same disposition for knowledge, and ardent spirit of enquiry, as

he himself possessed ; so that the congeniality of their tempers made them firm friends and allies.

‘ How great was the advantage of thus being enabled to compare their ideas together ! for however penetrating a genius individuals may possess, their advancement in knowledge will be much retarded without the aid of another of similar talents ; as it is by comparing their opinions, that they can establish them with facility, and assert them with confidence. If the understanding does not rise above mediocrity, I can assert from experience the disadvantage of not having a second person to consult on its opinions ; as I have felt the impediment it has been to the prosecution of my present study, by being obliged to digest the opinions of all writers on the subjects of these lectures without any assisting friend to strengthen or confute my ideas as they arose.’ P. 36.

Though we admire the sentiments of our authoress in general, we may note some in which she falls short of her usual accuracy. Thus, after recommending very properly Paley’s (not Payler’s) *Truths of Christianity*, she tells her pupils that she is

‘ conscious that any innovation in religion, like that in a state, is but the forerunner of its total destruction.’

This sentiment is ill-founded. The Reformation was an innovation in religion ; but religion itself was not ruined by it. The next caution, to guard against schism, is the usual artifice of a papist, who represents the danger of separating from his church as the most terrible of all evils : how much wiser and more becoming is the advice of the apostle, ‘ Try all ; cleave to that which is best.’

We observe sometimes an improper acceptation of words. Thus, in the description of light, we find the word *diluted*.

‘ Light radiating from a centre, diminishes as it diverges ; because, by filling a larger space, it becomes more and more diluted.’ P. 13.

Now *diluted* may be well said of the weakness of a painter’s colours, but not of the diminution of particles striking a surface at different distances. The language used cannot be too plain ; and, in definition particularly, we should rather aim at retaining that of former writers, than deviate from it. From not attending to this consideration, Mrs. Bryan has given an erroneous definition of the *angle*.

‘ ANGLE. The distance contained between lines which touch each other in one point.’ P. 287.

Now the angle is the inclination of two lines to each other, and is measured, not by distance, but by arcs of a circle,

having the same radius, and the vertex of the angle for its centre.

There is a very good vocabulary; but we beg leave to recommend, for the next impression of the work, a slight addition, etymologically explanatory of each word.

The History of the New World, by Don Juan Baptista Munoz. Translated from the Spanish, with Notes by the Translator, an engraved Portrait of Columbus, and a Map of Espanola. Vol. I. 8vo. 8s. Boards. 1797.

ON a former occasion *, we noticed the German translation of this work by professor Sprengel; but we were then the more brief in stating its contents, from an expectation of its appearance in English. Few subjects are of greater importance; and, as the author has had access to new sources of information, it will be proper to exhibit a summary of what he relates.

This interesting volume is divided into six books, the first of which opens with observations on the imperfect state of geographical knowledge among the ancients, which the crusades of the middle ages, and travels by land, in some degree enlarged, but which the voyages of the Castilians and Portuguese much more extended. Columbus, roused by the spirit of discovery, projects the enterprise of seeking lands in the unknown ocean, and finds a new world in the western hemisphere. The result of his undertaking corrects erroneous opinions, and, in respect to soil, plants, and animals, widens the scope of human observation. From the disparity between the aboriginal inhabitants and their European visitors, the new world becomes a gainer by the cultivation of the latter, while its productions, and the consequent establishment of trade, materially change the aspect of Europe. In particular, the sciences receive a fresh impulse from the success of Columbus; and, though the efforts of the Portuguese led the way, the enterprising zeal of the Spaniards effected his success.

It being the purport of the history to develope by what means this end was attained, the writer begins his second book with remarks on the magnet, the nature and virtue of which were first known during the middle ages. Though nautical science and geography owe so much, in modern times, to the invention of the mariner's compass, the disco-

* See Crit. Review, New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 553.

very of the Canary Islands served only at first to fix a meridian of calculation. Bethencourt having there established a Castilian colony, the trade of Seville gradually laid open the ocean, and considerably improved the knowledge of Africa. This suggested to Don Henry of Portugal the plan of his southern discoveries; and the advantages thence arising to navigation, geography, and commerce, induced Don Juan II. to extend his inquiries, which his subjects were the better able to pursue, by the application of the astrolabe in the course of their voyages. Having attained a knowledge of the African coast to its southern extremity, the Portuguese were stimulated to further attempts. In the mean time, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, who was not only a skilful mariner, but had availed himself of whatever information he could procure in Portugal, from a persuasion that India might be reached by a western course, strongly recommended such a voyage to Juan. That monarch declining all concern in the scheme, and Genoa and England rejecting it also, Columbus transferred his proposal to Spain, where, after some obstacles, it was embraced.

Our historian commences his third book with the sailing of the fleet in 1492, and proceeds to a detail of its voyage to the Canaries, and of the distress and dangers encountered before the discovery of St. Salvador, the inhabitants of which island he describes. More islands are discovered, and Cuba among them, which Columbus supposes to be the famous Cipango. Martin Alonso, intending to seek the gold-country by himself, separates from Columbus, who, arriving at the cape of Mayci, mistakes it for the extremity of Asia, and calls it Alpha and Omega. Advancing in his course, this enterprising navigator falls in with the great island of Hayti, which he calls Espanola. From its very favourable appearance, and the love and reverence of its inhabitants towards the Spaniards, he resolves to colonise it.

Entering upon a survey of the fourth book, we find Columbus on his return to Spain. In his way thither, he meets with Alonso, receives him in a friendly manner, and gains from him a certain account of the Caribee islands. A dreadful tempest ensues, which separates the ships, and threatens them with destruction. Columbus, giving up all for lost, contrives to preserve an account of his voyage, and, at length, lands at Lisbon, where admiration is excited by the report of his discoveries. Proceeding thence to the harbour of Palos, he has the satisfaction to see the Pinta arrive, the same day, at that port. The discoverer is received at court with every mark of esteem; and Pope Alexander VI. annexes the western hemisphere to the crown of Castile. The success of the voyage produces a determination of renewing the attempt;

and Columbus, being appointed admiral, viceroy, &c. sets sail with seventeen ships. In the mean time, Portugal claims the new world, and negotiates on the subject with Spain; but the dispute is compromised by a treaty of partition. Having been prevented before from visiting the Caribee islands, Columbus now directs his course towards them, and is shocked, on his arrival, to find the inhabitants cannibals. Returning to Espanola, he is exposed to the mortification of witnessing the subversion of his infant colony. But he soon finds a more favourable situation, and builds a town, to which he gives the name of Isabella.

The occurrences related in the fifth book are those of 1494 and 1495; and, of these, the first is the search of Columbus for gold in Cibao. Having dispatched thirteen ships to Spain with accounts of his new discoveries, and with requisitions of fresh supplies, he goes himself to the mines; receives a large quantity of gold, with notices of other articles of value; and erects the fort of St. Thomas. He afterwards embarks in quest of the continent; and, arriving at the island of Jamaica, is delighted with the beauties which it presents. Sailing back to Espanola, he is driven by a storm upon the islet of Mona, where a severe illness befalls him; but his recovery is greatly accelerated by the unexpected appearance of his brother Bartholomew, attended with succours. Having established the fort of Conception, he dispatches to Spain four ships, laden with slaves, gold, Brasil wood, &c. He attacks, in Vega, a vast multitude of Indians, and defeats them. The natives, thus overpowered, submit to the Spaniards; and a heavy tribute is imposed by the admiral. Clamours hence arise; and, at the desire of his rivals, a commissioner is sent from court to hear and redress grievances, to enjoin a mild treatment of the natives, and to promote their instruction in the catholic religion: but this officer exceeds his authority. Columbus receives an account of the gold mines of Hayana, the opulence of which gives rise to the conjecture that Espanola was Solomon's Ophir. Resolving to return to Spain, he leaves the government to his brother, and, after a difficult voyage, arrives at Cadiz.

In the sixth book, which extends to the year 1500, the appearance of Columbus at court, for the purpose of stating his ulterior plan, is mentioned; but, though Ferdinand and Isabella adopt his new proposals, several incidents arise to retard their execution. In the interim, however, his brother forms a port at the mouth of the Ozama, and examines the provinces that lie towards the south-west; and some of his men discover along the coast forests of Brasil wood. On his return to Isabella, he finds that settlement in a wretched condition, and takes proper measures for its re-establishment: he then

lays the foundation of a fort at Bonoa. A rebellion is excited by Roldan, which Bartholomew endeavours, without success, to quell. Taking courage from these disagreements, the Indians rose against the Spaniards; and, if the reinforcement dispatched by the admiral had not opportunely arrived, the colony, in 1498, would probably have been ruined. Embarking with fresh honours and rewards, Columbus, on his arrival at the Canaries, dispatched three ships to Espanola; and, steering south-west, he discovered the island of Trinidad. Reflections are here introduced on the difference between this country and Africa, in reference to heat, climate, and inhabitants. The discovery of the continent ensues; of which, after dangers surmounted in the gulph of Paria, immediate possession is taken. Among other ornaments of dress which distinguish the inhabitants, pearls in particular are noticed. Columbus re-visits Espanola, and, after having discovered Margarita, arrives in the harbour of St. Domingo, where his brother had erected a town. A persecution of Guarionex, who betook himself for protection to the Ciguayans, is related, together with the war against the latter. Roldan and his adherents behave insolently to Columbus; who sends five ships to Spain with an account of the mutiny and of other incidents. Roldan repairs to St. Domingo, and proposes hard terms. An agreement is at length effected, upon condition that the insurgents should embark for Spain. The admiral now endeavours to establish order, and improve the condition of the colony; but the rebels, receding from their engagements, refuse to leave the island. Columbus introduces a constitution on the basis of the *Repartimientos*, or assignments of lands. New commotions break out in consequence of the discontent of the Ciguayans, and of Ojeda's arrival with his fleet. A dangerous flame is kindled by the latter, which Roldan extinguishes, compelling Ojeda, in the beginning of 1500, to quit the island. Other refractory leaders are seized and punished. The admiral at length sees tranquillity restored, and the colony once more in a promising condition; but, while he is in hopes of enjoying the fruit of his toils, he is assailed by envy and calumny, and harassed by a reverse of fortune.—With this narrative the present volume terminates.

The translator hath been faithful to the sense of his author, without displaying any graces of style. In some instances his English treads too closely on the original idiom. He has inserted the substance of many of Sprengel's notes; and the volume is illustrated with a neat map, and adorned with a spirited head of Columbus.

A Cabinet of Quadrupeds. By John Church, Surgeon. Parts I. and II. 4to. Darton and Harvey. 1797.

NUMEROUS have been the publications which have recently tended to make the study of natural history popular. All of these are entertaining; but it is not easy to define the particular merits of each. As Reviewers, we cannot be pleased with expensive works, when they do not add to the stock of knowledge; we regret, that the luxuries of science are sold at so high a price, when we know that the necessaries are of so difficult acquisition. There are, however, some persons, who conceive disgust at the plain but wholesome food of literature; who delight in selected and made-up dishes, and who can afford to pay for such niceties. By such individuals, Mr. Church's book may be considered as a treat.

As a specimen of the author's talents in selection and arrangement, we insert a part of his account of the tiger.

‘ The royal tiger is certainly the most beautiful creature of the cat kind; but, as if it were to shew the danger of attachment to beauty, merely for its own sake, it is at the same time the most cruel, rapacious, and destructive animal in the creation.

‘ The size of the royal tiger is often superior to that of the lion; its usual length, when full grown, is about nine feet, and it frequently is four feet ten inches in height; notwithstanding which, it is possessed of as much agility as the cat, united with prodigious strength; thus qualified, it is no wonder that it carries dread and devastation wherever it goes. The tiger resembles the cat in its general form. Its colour is a full yellow, inclining to fawn colour, which is deeper on the back, and becomes gradually lighter as it approaches towards the belly, where it is white, as are also the throat and the inside of the legs; the whole body is beautifully marked with deep black stripes or bands, which run in the same direction as the ribs, from the back down to the belly, and form a striking and elegant contrast with the yellow: round each eye there is a white space spotted with black, and a stripe of the same colour extends along the cheeks, from the ear to the throat; the legs are yellow, with some black stripes on them, the hair is beautifully glossy and smooth, and looks like very fine velvet.

‘ The royal tiger may be considered as one of the rarest of quadrupeds, and much less diffused than the lion: it is a native of the East Indies, where it is only to be found in the warmest regions.

‘ The tiger is seldom heard to roar, with much violence, in a state of captivity; but, when he ranges at large the tyrant of the forests, his cry is horrible beyond description. It begins by intonations and reflections which are at first deep, melancholy, and slow; these presently become more acute, when suddenly collecting himself, he sends forth a violent cry, interrupted by long tremu-

lous sounds, which make a distracting impression upon the mind. The night is the time when his roarings are usually heard, the horror of which is increased by the silence and darkness, and his cries are repeated by the echoes of the mountains.

‘At the dreaded appearance of this cruel monster, which always seems to tremble with a savage joy at the sight of the animal whose blood he is about to drink, most other creatures think only of flight, which is often unavailing: if the bear has not time to ascend a tree, he is dead: the dog has scarcely a moment allowed him to utter the cry of despair, he is instantly seized and torn in pieces: a large bull is presently overthrown, and dragged away with ease: the wild male buffalo indeed will dart at his enemy, but if he is alone, he soon falls a victim to his cruel antagonist.

‘A peasant, in the Sundah Rajha’s dominions, had a buffalo fallen into a quagmire, and while he went for assistance, a large tiger, with its single strength, drew forth the animal, though the united force of many men was insufficient for the purpose. The first object which presented itself to the people on their return to the place, was the tiger, who had thrown the buffalo over his shoulder, as a fox does a goose, and was carrying it away, with the feet upwards, towards its den; as soon as it saw the men, it let fall its prey, and instantly fled to the woods: but it had previously killed the buffalo, and sucked its blood. The Indian buffalo usually weighs a thousand pounds, which is twice the weight of our black cattle; from hence some idea may be formed of the enormous strength of this cruel and rapacious animal, which could run off with a creature twice its own weight with such apparent ease.’ Part I.

We beg leave also to subjoin an anecdote known to Mr. Church, relative to that much-abused and long-suffering animal, the ass; for whom, like Sterne, we have a degree of compassion, perhaps amounting to regard, and in whose favour we therefore wish to interfere, to shield him as much as possible from ill treatment, by showing, that the apparent stupidity and sulkiness of character with which he is reproached, are not natural to him, but arise from the ill usage to which he is early subjected.

‘Much has been said of the stupid and stubborn disposition of the ass, but we are greatly inclined to suspect that the aspersion is ill-founded; whatever bad qualities, of this kind, he may sometimes possess, they do not appear to be the consequences of any natural defect in his constitution or temper, but, as has been already observed, arise from the manner used in training him, and the bad treatment he receives. We are the rather led to this assertion, from having lately seen one which experiences a very different kind of treatment from his master, than is the fate of the generality of asses. The humane owner of this individual is an old man, whose employment is the selling of vegetables, which he conveys from door

to door, on the back of his ass. He is constantly baiting the poor creature with handfuls of hay, pieces of bread, or greens, which he procures in his progress. It is with pleasure we relate, for we have often curiously observed the old man's demeanor towards his ass, that he seldom carries any instrument of incitement with him, nor did we ever see him lift his hand to drive it on.

‘Upon our observing to him, that he seemed to be very kind to his ass, and enquiring whether he was apt to be stubborn, how long he had had him, &c. he replied, “Ah! master, it is of no use to be cruel, and as for stubbornness I cannot complain, for he is ready to do any thing, and will go any where; I bred him myself, and have had him these two years; he is sometimes skittish and playful, and once ran away from me; you will hardly believe it, but there were more than fifty people after him, to stop him, but they were not able to effect it; yet he turned back of himself, and never stopped till he ran his head kindly into my breast.”

‘The countenance of this individual is open, lively, and cheerful; his pace nimble and regular, and the only inducement used to make him increase his speed, is that of calling him by name, which he readily obeys.’ Part I.

There is, perhaps, no part of natural history which requires more to be illustrated by drawings, than that appertaining to quadrupeds; for specimens of them cannot, as in other instances, be kept in a cabinet. Besides, a well-executed picture represents the character as well as the form of an animal; and the surrounding scenery may be contrived to depict his habits and modes of life. Such has been the design of the engraver of the plates contained in Mr. Church’s book, which are, in general, very neatly executed. We must, however, observe, that there is a great difference between neatness and accuracy of drawing; and that, in glancing over the portraits of well-known animals, we perceived a want of correctness in the outline. This criticism we are the more inclined to make, as the faults seem to have arisen rather from negligence than from want of skill in the artist.

The Principles of Critical Philosophy, selected from the Works of Emmanuel Kant, &c. and expounded by James Sigismund Beck, &c. Translated from the German by an Auditor of the latter. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Escher. 1797.

HOWEVER important Kant’s system of philosophising may be in itself, or however clearly it hath been explained by professor Beck in his abstract, the representation of it, in the translation before us, surpasses our comprehension.

From the many new terms introduced by Kant, and the

different significations annexed to old ones, his style, otherwise verbose and embarrassed, hath rendered his metaphysics hard to be understood. Of this even his countrymen complain; and, though Beck may have done much to facilitate the study, his translator hath defeated his aim. To the zeal of making proselytes we ascribe all the praise that is due, convinced that it springs from the pure love of truth; but it certainly is a zeal not according to knowledge; for, by his ignorance of the language into which he translates, what before was *difficult*, is frequently rendered *unintelligible*.

The following passage, which is one of the least obscure, points out the basis of the system.

‘ Critical philosophy depends solely on the position: *we cognize not the things, as they are in themselves, but as they appear to us*; if nothing were intended to be expressed therein but that the objects are different from their representations, this discovery would not indeed merit much admiration; but this position says, that the conjunction which we place in the things, e. g. in the position, an object *has* a greatness, rests on an original, intellectual conjunction (the original act of drawing of the imagination, named space). This introspection into the nature of the categories is of the greatest import. The categories of *nature* constitute the transcendental of all theoretical cognition. The category *liberty* is, in like manner, the basis of all moral cognition. The category the *formal conformity-to-end of nature* is, finally, a transcendental principle, on which all reflection and the procedure of judgment in experience rest, so far as it looks for rules, in order to be able to think objects. This conception of the transcendental of our cognition is, therefore, the principle of division of transcendental philosophy itself.’ P. lxii.

The influence which Kant’s system has had on the continent is so great, as to make a real explanation of it a desirable object; but, from what we have read of his works in the original, and what others have published to explain them, it appears to us little more than a *darkening of counsel by words without knowledge*.

The representation of Judaism, in the passage annexed, deserves to be censured as erroneous and false.

‘ Judaism was by no means a religious constitution; God is represented in it but as governour of the world, who pretends to the outward obedience only of his orders, but directs not his attention toward the moral sentiments of his subjects. This is obvious, *first*, because all commands of Judaism are of such a nature, that a political constitution can also consist thereof and injoin them as coercive laws, as they concern outward actions only.’ P. 432.

How does this correspond with the prohibition of the decalogue, — ‘ Thou shalt not covet?’ — or with Levit. xix. 17.

&c. — Thou shalt not hate thy brother in *thine HEART* — but thou shalt *LOVE* thy neighbour, as *thyself*. I the Lord enjoin this.' Again, Deut. vi. 5. — 'Thou shalt *love* the Lord thy God with all thy *HEART*,' &c. — The most pernicious kind of philosophising is that which perverts truth to accommodate system.

Odes and Miscellanies by Robert Farren Cheetham. 8vo. 6s.
Boards. Champante and Whitrow. 1796.

THIS elegant little volume is dedicated, by a youth of nineteen years of age, to his schoolmaster.

' Being' (he says) ' on the eve of exchanging my present situation for the *muse-wreathed* banks of *Isis*, I felt a strong desire to separate, by publication, the efforts of the school-boy from (I hope) the maturer productions of the collegian. Such as these first-fruits are, you have deigned to accept them, and by that means rendered them more dear to me. It is not my nature to be elated with applause, but when you, sir, when the tenth Muse, the all-accomplished *Seward*, when the *British Critic* * have with one voice "*told me I can write*," I should look down upon myself as on something inferior to a human being, were I not proudly gratified.'

P. V.

Mr. Cheetham, we think, *will write* when his mind shall be more richly stored, and his taste corrected. At present, he displays little novelty in his ideas, and little judgment in their arrangement. We do not say this to discourage him. From so young a writer, an easy versification is all that should be expected; and he will not have misemployed his time in acquiring a command of language, which we hope one day to see applied to better subjects. This is one of the advantages of an early love of poetry; but it is not the *only advantage*; nor is it the most valuable. He who is accustomed to contemplate what is beautiful in the natural world, will acquire a quick perception of moral beauty; and he strengthens the better feelings of his nature by the ardour with which he expresses them. We remark these feelings with pleasure in the volume before us. Some passages of the Ode to Health will serve as favourable specimens. The ode thus begins:

' Hail goddess of the rosy-tinted cheek,
Where smiles are wreath'd "in dimple sleek,"
Hail goddess of the sparkle-darting eye,
Where loves and graces ambush'd lie!'

* Some of these poems were first published under the signature of *Mauren*.

‘ Ah ! why, when young-eyed Hebe smiles,
Thy sister-offspring of th’ ethereal powers,
Dost thou employ thy sullen wiles,
And taint with gall the passing hours?
O why, Hygeia, thus severely frown,
Why canker, cruel maid, life’s opening bloom ;
Why from my head tear youth’s salubrious crown,
And ruthless bend me down untimely to the tomb ?

‘ Why dost thou fly the Muses’ bower,
Where Learning, nymph of sober mien,
In silent musing oft is seen,
And ruminates on Wisdom’s antique lore :
Why shouldest thou despote unkind
Be still averse to elegance of mind ?
O could the Muse’s charms attract thine heart,
I’d woo thee in my sweetest strains,
One gentle smile I’d force thee to impart,
One gentle smile would dissipate my pains.—
Or if thou wilt not lend the Muse thine ear,
Say where thou deign’st to dwell and I will seek thee there.’

P. 96.

After an enumeration of the blessings of health, the poet proceeds :

‘ But who ——————
Prefers corporeal health to health of mind ?
Should stern-eyed Justice view the guilty world,
What bolts of fateful vengeance would be hurl’d !
How few there are, who tread this earthly ball,
Whom some disease of mind does not enthrall ;
The world is one huge lazarus-house of those,
Whose vice or phrenzy gives their mind to woes ;
The eyes of Fancy view their inmost souls,
And ken each black disease that every breast controuls.

‘ Whom of the many shall the Muse’s lay
Bring out into the blaze of day ?
That face distorted, angry, sour,
Those eyes where Death and Malice lour,
Th’ abode of Envy, gloomy hag, betray,
Whose snakes are ever prompt true merit to devour ;
She, like the giant in romantic dreams,
Exults the most, when she can most destroy,
And, deck’d with limbs discept, she grandest seems ;
Deadlier than poison is another’s fame,
The only joy she proves springs from their bane or shame.’

Like other young poets, Mr. Cheetham frequently lengthens a word by an unnecessary syllable, as *encharm*, *engloom*, *engild*, *enshrouded*, *ysprung*. The monosyllables *shed'st* and *thought'st*, and the word *cæcutiency*, are totally unfit for poetry. In his double epithets he is peculiarly unhappy—*sparkle-darting*, *sky-gender'd*, *murder-causing*. His metre also is frequently very irregular; a fault of which the following lines will afford instances.

‘ Unchain'd by vice thy soul must soar
All mundane things above,
And with pleasure
Passing measure,
Must invariably adore
The great pacific lamb, the miracle of love.’ P. 24.

Lines of less than six syllables are always unpleasant—

‘ All hail to thee,
Sweet Modesty.’ P. 63.

‘ Thou lov'st to rove
In silent grove.’ P. 64.

This quick recurrence of rhyme is only proper in a dramatic chorus. We frequently find verses of fourteen syllables in these poems:—Mr. Cheetham should remember that this is only printing two lines of ballad metre as one.

In one respect, our author differs from most juvenile poets: he is a blind follower of Mr. Burke; but he has imbibed only the rancour of the orator, not his genius. Of his satires we shall only observe, that he will probably be one day equally ashamed of such poetry and such principles.

We have pointed out the faults of this young author with some minuteness, because they are such as he may easily avoid; and because he possesses powers, which, combined with his love of poetry, may enable him to write with considerable success.

Sermons on the Principles upon which the Reformation of the Church of England was established; preached before the University of Oxford, in the Year 1796, at the Lecture founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, M. A. &c. By Robert Gray, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1796.

THE reputation which Mr. Gray had acquired by his *Key to the Old Testament*, a former volume of sermons, and his *Travels*, induced us to take up these lectures with no small degree of expectation; and in justice to him we declare, that we have not been disappointed. On some of the lecturer's

topics we differ materially; but, allowing him his own ground, we think that few persons could have made a better defence; and we greatly wonder that his services have hitherto been unrewarded.

Mr. Gray has considered his subject under various heads, and supported his deductions by a multiplicity of authorities, which evince his acuteness and research.

The following, in our opinion, is an interesting extract.

‘ If, after maintaining the sufficiency of the scriptures, and the decisions of the primitive ages, our church for some time imposed the doctrines of human invention; if, after asserting the rights of a conscientious freedom of judgment, it constrained the exertions of the mind,—not by a justifiable rejection from offices of instruction and confidence, but by measures of obtrusive, and even sanguinary compulsion, it was in rare and solitary instances, ere its awakened spirit had thrown off every prejudice of a corrupt faith; ere its security rested on a settled foundation, and amidst the struggles of numerous and active enemies, who laboured with unremitting endeavours to effect its destruction.

‘ The few deeds of cruelty which stain its annals, it deplores with one common sentiment; lamenting the errors of lingering bigotry, the prejudice, which impeded the operation of principles, gradually disclosed and perfected.

‘ To the resolute temper of a vigorous, and sometimes rigid government, must be ascribed the laws which operated in successive reigns with penal severity against the assailants of its constitution; who, masking malicious designs under the pretence of conscience, or framing political schemes with religious enthusiasm, conspired to the subversion as well of the civil, as of the ecclesiastical departments.

‘ For the capricious and indiscriminate acts of tyranny in the reign of Henry, and for some transient traces of vindictive persecution in subsequent times, we have no apology to offer; as they must be imputed to that mistaken zeal for religion, which blindly unsheathes the sword of violence to enforce its precarious dictates; which in former ages hath consecrated the banners of cruelty; and displayed the cross of Christ, but to spread abroad the horrors of devastation and blood. Those, however, who have reflected on the dangerous activity of that unsubdued spirit which animated the cause of the depressed party in the reign of Elizabeth and James; which was instigated by the Roman pontiff, to whom it continued to assign a temporal and universal sceptre, and a deposing authority; which leagued with the formidable and threatening enemies of the country at critical and alarming moments; which every where cherished a suspected flame, and betrayed the materials of dangerous preparation, will not dispute the necessity of some extraordinary severities for the security of the kingdom.

‘ Those, likewise, on the other hand, who have considered the mischievous and offensive conduct of the opposite party, which fanned every spark of discontent, and encouraged every breeze of disaffection ; which established its nurseries of dissension in every part, and inflamed them with the fanatic notion of their destination to establish a pattern of imaginary perfection of civil and religious discipline ; those who review the character of such times, cannot be surprised at discovering some acts of rigour in the administration of the secular power : or cannot at least dispute, that they resulted from political apprehension ; and not from the suggestion of the church, which, where its voice was respected, had betrayed no intemperance of spirit ; had shewn no wish to retaliate the cruelties of Mary's reign ; and by its mild and conciliatory temper had sometimes gained its adversaries to reverence its decisions ; and pleaded, with effectual supplication, for the condemned.

‘ By the discreet and temperate measures of the reformers, persuading and exhorting men to a consideration of the evidence of truth, was the cause of reformation advanced ; and not by violence or persecution. While the scriptures were commended, the spirit which they breathe was insensibly adopted ; and if we reflect on the operation of human passions, and consider how invariably their suggestions mingle with the best designs, we shall find subject of admiration, that the cause of religion could, with so few exceptions, be allowed to prevail by its own force ; and that amidst anxious solicitude, and conflicting interests and difficulties, it should establish its decrees with so little violence.

‘ Look we back to the vast structure of superstition which had been raised by the accumulations of successive ages ; behold it darkening the land by its shadow ; reverenced by the multitude, and defended by a zealous and powerful combination of the elevated members of society ; see it collapse with sudden fall ; without injury to the country ; without even involving its corrupt supporters in its ruin, any farther than as their interests were immediately implicated and entwined with the departments which were removed, and we shall have cause to venerate the powerful operation of truth, which could thus break up and destroy a fabrick so stupendous.’

P. 276.

As the author of the Dissenting Gentleman's Letters is now no more, we recommend the contents of these lectures to Dr. Toulmin's consideration. On which-ever side the truth lies, it can suffer nothing from discussion.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS AND FINANCE.

Observations on the Dispute between the United States and France, addressed by Robert Goodloe Harper, Esq. one of the Delegates of South Carolina, to his Constituents, in May, 1797. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1797.

WHEN two families are at variance, the neighbours find it difficult to preserve themselves from being involved in the dispute. The Americans have suffered, without doubt, from the contest of two powerful parties in the political world; and it certainly was a misfortune for them that a new treaty should have been concluded between them and Great-Britain at a time when the French had some suspicions of too great a partiality in favour of their rival. The treaty has exasperated the French; and they have used language which has excited the indignation of the congress. The writer of this work, who is an American representative, imparts to his constituents his opinion upon this subject. He not only considers what conduct the United States should pursue; but he bitterly inveighs against France for her foreign and domestic measures, and enters much more than is necessary into European politics. In the detail of injuries sustained from the French, there is much prolixity. In summing up the case, however, the observer speaks with a manly firmness. He recommends that negotiation should be accompanied with serious preparations, and approves the system pursued in a similar case towards England.

‘ This system is exactly conformable to that which was formerly adopted respecting Britain. When Britain, after repeated remonstrances on our part, continued her depredations on our commerce, though in so doing she broke no treaty, though she did not recall her minister or drive away ours, we resolved to prepare for resistance, but in the meantime to make another attempt by negotiation; and, fortunately, the attempt was successful. Britain gave up her measures, and agreed to make restitution for the past. Should France be induced to act in the same manner, we shall once more have the satisfaction of seeing our rights vindicated by that union of moderation and firmness which has heretofore redounded so much to the honor and advantage of our country. Should she refuse, and war prove necessary, the recollection that we have done all in our power to avoid it, will enable us to support the struggle with unanimity and fortitude.’ p. 156.

The question of the expense of the war is discussed with spirit; and it may strike such of our countrymen as were eager in their promises when danger was at a distance, and have been slow of recollection on the demand for their services.

‘ Should any ask, what are the sacrifices we must incur by a war,

and what are our means of becoming formidable to France? I would answer that, as to sacrifices, the greatest we can make is that of our rights and independence; that war is an evil always to be avoided, but infinitely less than national degradation, and submission to the will of a foreign power; that every possible loss of property and lives may be repaired by time and industry, if we preserve our honor and our governments; but that these, once lost, can never be restored; in fine, that a nation which weighs its purse against its rights, never fails in the end to lose both one and the other.' p. 159.

A New System of Finance. By Thomas Fry, Author of the *Guardian of Public Credit.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

The defects in the present system of finance can be no longer concealed even from vulgar eyes; and it is natural that many plans should be formed for the liquidation of our public debt. The system here recommended depends on the institution of national banks; but we, who have seen the fatal bankruptcy of the greatest establishment of that kind, cannot form very sanguine expectations from such a proposal. What is most requisite is a total change of system. We must cease to be deluded by the speculations of money-jobbers; and the government of any country is surely very much degraded when its chief concerns are with stock-jobbers and loan-contractors. Of the moneyed system our author has a just opinion; but, as he aims at wit, and rather unsuccessfully, he is not likely either to bring that class of men into the contempt which they deserve, or to give his readers a fair opportunity of estimating his merits in finance.

Hints for a speedy Reduction of a large Proportion of the National Debt, and a gradual Decrease of Taxes, addressed to the Nation at large, and more particularly the Public Creditors. 8vo. 6d. Westley. 1797.

Such hints as these may very easily be formed in an arm-chair. One hint is to the public creditor to give up a small part of his debt; and then, by diminishing capital and interest, we are disburthened of fifty millions in an instant. There are two much more efficacious modes of reduction. The populace may burn the books at the bank, or the creditors may do it themselves. But we hope never to have reason to accuse the nation of this species of fraud; nor can we call upon the proprietors of stock for such an instance of generosity.

Considerations on the Depression of the Funds, and the present Embarrassments of Circulation: with Propositions for some Remedies to each. By J. Brand, M.A. 8vo. 2s. R. White. 1797.

There is in this work a great affectation of science. The state of the stocks, during several years of peace, is examined. A distinction is made between apparent and effective interest—that is,

between the interest paid for a purchase at the end of a given time, and between the purchase-money and the price at which the stock is sold at the end of that term. The latter sum is the effective interest; or it may be effective decrease, as many persons concerned in the stocks have to their loss frequently experienced. In common conversation, part of this effective interest is termed the gain or loss upon the stock. That conclusions with regard to the state of the nation, from the rise and fall of the apparent interest, or from a comparison of the price of stock and price of land, are fallacious, we may be induced to believe, not only from the difference between these prices in this and the last war, but from the more accurate knowledge we now have of the funds. So many causes concur to affect both, that no general conclusions can be drawn from either. We want no accuracy of research to tell us why the stocks should be low at present; nor does it require any great portion of sagacity to foresee what would make them rise, or what events might, in case of peace, prevent for some time that rise. As to the remedies proposed, we hold one too base to be mentioned—the raising of the value of guineas. On the equalisation of the land-tax, much may be said; but we do not scruple to give our opinion, that an equal land-tax now raised, without reference to the other land-tax, would save the state from its financial embarrassments, and be ultimately beneficial to all parties. We either do not understand the means, or we would wish to differ from the author with regard to the means, of raising public spirit, as hinted in the following passage.

‘ Some of these means were resorted to with success in 1792; but since that time, we seem to have forgotten that there is such an art as that of raising the spirit of a great nation, and directing it to noble sentiments and ends: and every one of its most masterly precepts—every refinement of it not disavowed by moral dignity, should now be brought into practice.’ p. 68.

The modes in 1792, whatever Mr. Brand alludes to, cannot have been very good, if the effects of them have so soon evaporated.

Thoughts concerning the proper constitutional Principles, in Points of Finance and Personal Service, that ought to be adopted in future, for the Support of the British Navy and Army. Addressed to the Grand Juries of England, and to the landed and funded Interest of Great Britain. By a Freeholder of the County of York.
4to. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.

The financial plan is a tax, *ad valorem*, upon all property in land, mortgage, or the funds. For the sea-service,

‘ If the board of admiralty wish to man the navy expeditely, they should specify in the gazette the number of seamen and landsmen wanted for government service:—Secondly, They should

likewise lay a strict embargo upon all the ports in Great Britain, until the demands of government for seamen are satisfied.' p. 16.

For the land-service, the regiments are to be named from particular districts; and the householders in each parish are to ballot for the men, who will be less missed among them. Some other trifling expedients are proposed. The quotation from Gibbon we highly approve :

" In the purer ages of the commonwealth, the use of arms was reserved for those ranks of citizens who had a country to love, a property to defend, and some share in enacting those laws, which it was their interest, as well as duty, to maintain." p. 45.

We may observe here, that, according to the old English laws, every Englishman should have arms in his house, and be ready at any time to meet an enemy; and, to the different schemes of raising men for the army and navy, we shall only add, that we are never in want of generals or admirals, and that a similar plan of reward will easily secure to the service both soldiers and sailors.

Brief Thoughts, &c. on a View of the Causes and Consequences of the present War with France, by the Hon. Thomas Erskine. Second Edition. 8vo. 6d. Owen. 1797.

' For my own part, I do not pretend to be unbiased—I have received certain prejudices which I hope are honest; I do not wish to be quit of them.' p. 4.

No man of sense can say that he does not wish to free himself from a prejudice; but, from the person who wrote the sentence here quoted, we were not surprised to find another proof of ignorance, with its very frequent concomitant, in the following passage :

' If Mr. Erskine were an ignorant blockhead, I would pardon him, like any other ignorant blockhead for what he has written; but as I know he is no fool, and has shewn himself in his arguments so like one, I must think he is a great deal worse than a fool.' p. 20.

In the title-page of this trash, we find it called the second edition. For the credit of the country, we hope that the work is indebted for this addition to the courtesy of booksellers, not to the taste of readers.

Treasons; or, an Enquiry into the Connection between the Minister and the Bank Directors. By a Citizen. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1797.

A well-known bishop is reprobated for his speech in the house of peers on the concern of the people with the laws; and the conspiracy (as it is termed) between the minister and the bank directors, is compared to the Mississippi system, and the bankruptcy of the caisse d'écompte in France. Its immediate effects are certainly not the same; but, in common with all our countrymen, we feel some apprehensions for futurity.

AGRICULTURE.

Essays on Agriculture: occasioned by reading Mr. Stone's Report on the present State of that Science in the County of Lincoln. By a Native of the County. 8vo. 15. 6d. Richardson. 1796.

In an art which immediately supplies both the necessities and luxuries of society, the importance of practical hints and improvements is particularly obvious. The observations contained in this little tract were, we are informed, suggested by the perusal of the report of the state of agriculture in Lincolnshire, as drawn up by Mr. Stone. This account, not having yet been reprinted, has not fallen under our examination; we are, therefore, not enabled to form any judgment of the accuracy of the details which it may comprise. The present writer, however, attacks many of Mr. Stone's positions and conclusions; and though we cannot think that he is always successful, he frequently shows himself to be an able and experienced farmer.

On drainage, we cannot discover that much is advanced, except what has been long well known. It requires a very slight attention to the subject, to be convinced that peculiarity of situation must always have a considerable influence in directing the methods which are to be pursued. It does not follow, as this writer supposes, that, because many of the drains in this county were *self-formed*, they were formed in the most advantageous directions.

The business of inclosing is of great moment, and is here handled with some ability, though in too concise a way. We are far from wishing the vast quantity of commonage-land to remain in its present state: yet we are convinced, with the author of these essays, that many inconveniences will arise to the poor, unless much care be taken in the regulations that are adopted with regard to inclosure.

We know, from much observation, that the poor in many places derive advantages from such lands, which have not been adverted to, either by writers or by the projectors of plans of inclosure; some of which, but by no means the whole, are noticed in the following passage.

‘ But how does the poor man live intirely by what he gets off the commons? Not by stocking them: he is overpowered in his endeavours on this head: but by his superior industry, in fishing, fowling, getting fuel, and a thousand such trifles, which his poverty obliges him to attend to, but which are yet exclusively his own, so long as the commons remain uninclosed; for his richer neighbour will not condescend to such pursuits. I say, the poor commoner, by such extraordinary means and pursuits, lives — lives independently; and, in spite of the forestalling practices of his neighbour, lives plentifully.’ P. 21.

On the changes that take place by inclosing, our author's arguments are fair and judicious.

‘ The rich man’s property is altered for the better, because he gets a full equivalent for his commonable right changed into a better situation; inasmuch as inclosed is more convenient for cultivating than uninclosed land, and his casual accommodation is thus changed into permanent property, and by attending to the drainage, &c. will now always be ready for use. On the contrary, the poor commoner’s state is made worse; because inclosing destroys all those extraordinary means by which he lives; and in the general division of land he is allowed only an equivalent for the benefits accruing to him from stocking the common, without getting any consideration for those extraordinary advantages arising to him from the commons in their open state, but which, by inclosing, are absolutely destroyed.’ P. 21.

The plan of division proposed by Mr. Stone is ably commented upon, and justly condemned. The injustice of some of his ideas is extremely palpable. In this business, it is surely proper that the *leading principle* should be *equity*, which, if to any, should rather incline to the industrious cottager, than to the rich proprietor.

Many of the ideas of this writer on houses and crew-yards, and the disposition and arrangement of farms, are correct enough, but impracticable, except on large farms.

We perfectly coincide with the author in thinking that the industrious labourer does not only deserve, but has a *right*, to be comfortably provided for. If he gives the hard capital of his industry to the state, he surely, in return, may claim a proper subsistence for himself and his family. He cannot, however, we fear, have so much as is here proposed; inequivalent as it may be to a life of laborious industry.

On the principle that ought to regulate the price of human labour, he says—

‘ As to the price of labour, it ought not to be regulated merely by the season of the year, and by the price of bread; it ought to be proportioned at the different seasons of the year to the medium price of both wheat and butchers’ meat. For a working man cannot be said to live well without both, and butchers’ meat may be very dear when wheat is at the medium price, or even very cheap.’ P. 34.

The introduction of this principle, he concludes, would prevent combinations from taking place, both among the poor and the rich, on account of the price of labour or provisions; as it is evident, he thinks, that whatever diminishes the price of one, raises the price of the other. It would also, in his opinion, furnish those who are capable of superior exertions, with an opportunity of deriving from them an adequate reward, by working by quantity instead of time.

On soils, manures, and the choice of crops, we have observed several just practical remarks; but we are under the necessity of

passing over them, having already trespassed longer on the patience of the reader, than is our general custom in examining such small pamphlets.

Under the head 'Pasturage,' we find the author differing in some points from the common practice of farmers. How far his opinions on this subject may rest upon experience, it is difficult to say; but there is something reasonable in the remarks; and in matters of this kind we have yet very little that has been examined by the test of actual experiment.

In these Essays, which seem to be the production of a person well informed of the practices that prevail in the county of which he treats, there is much that interests the practical farmer, beside some points perhaps that have not hitherto much occupied his attention; but the pamphlet would have been more valuable, if the author had entered more at length into the discussion of some of the subjects which it comprehends.

General View of the Agriculture of the County of Stafford: with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement, by W. Pitt, of Pendeford, near Wolverhampton; with the additional Remarks of several respectable Gentlemen and Farmers in the County. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Robinsons. 1796.

We have already seen the state of different agricultural practices both in the northern and southern parts of our island; and we shall now advert to those which prevail in a midland district. The survey of this county has been committed to Mr. Pitt, who seems to have exerted much judgment and attention in describing the modes of management which characterise the husbandry of Staffordshire. In a few instances, he unnecessarily dwells on points of little moment; and, in one or two cases, he seems to have stepped out of his way. Under the head 'Grass,' something of this kind occurs. These, however, are trifling faults, when we consider the general merit of the work.

Soils in this, as in most other districts, Mr. Pitt finds to be extremely various, and to be defined with some difficulty; but he has properly described that of Staffordshire.

Under the head 'Management of Estates,' we meet with some observations which deserve attention. The proprietors of two or three hundred acres of land are certainly a valuable class of men, when considered in an agricultural point of view, especially where they cultivate their farms themselves. It is from this class, says Mr. Pitt, and the principal farmers, that all improvements in stock, and such as arise from the introduction of new modes of cultivation, are to be expected. Instances of the justness of this remark occur in the improved culture of turnips and artificial grasses, as well as in the breeding of cattle.

In the chapter on 'Buildings,' we find nothing new; nor can we

see the utility of particularly describing the seats of the gentry.

In Staffordshire, as in most other counties, the practice of consolidating farms prevails. This evil ought to be checked by proprietors, on the renewal of leases.

On the size of farms we agree with Mr. Pitt. There unquestionably ought to be farms of all sizes. More encouragement should, however, be given to the small occupant, as he forms an important link in the chain of agricultural improvement.

Mr. Pitt's calculations on the profits of farming hold out little encouragement to engage in that business: but we are inclined to believe that they are well-founded.

Many just remarks are given on the mode of cultivating and cropping arable lands. In this county, drill husbandry is indeed introduced, but has made a very small progress. The greatest part of the business is still performed in the old broad-cast way. This affords a striking example of the disinclination of persons in this line, to step out of the ordinary track, however encouraged by situation and circumstances.

We perceive some useful observations on the subjects of gardens and orchards, which seem not to have been sufficiently attended to by farmers in this district; and the suggestions of our author on the means of improving the breed of cattle may be safely consulted by the practical farmer, though they will not supply him with all that is necessary in conducting this difficult department.

There is scarcely any circumstance in the whole range of rural transactions, that deserves more seriously to be inquired into than that of weights and measures. In almost every district we find them varying, and extremely uncertain. They are particularly so in the county which is here examined; and it ought to be a primary object to reduce them as soon as possible to some general standard.

The chief improvements which this district is capable of receiving, are thus described.

' First, the cultivation of its wastes and unimproved land; this has been repeatedly named before, but can hardly be too much insisted on; I hope the board will take such measures as may bring about this desirable event in a general way, against the conclusion of a peace, as it would furnish ready employ for the men disbanded from the navy and the army, which must be very numerous upon the breaking up of the different fencible corps, and other temporary levies of men. Secondly, extending the practice of improving land by irrigation, or watering, to all places capable of that improvement, and wherever the water is not already appropriated; by which means, the growth of hay on such land might be greatly increased, and the mowing of arable land for hay rendered unnecessary, the breadth of corn-land would thus be naturally extended. Thirdly, the embankment of rivers, to prevent the destruction of hay; with sluices constructed through such banks, to

let through the water for irrigation, at pleasure. A work of this kind I had the pleasure of seeing upon the Trent below Stone; but for this business to be done in the best manner, it must be taken up in a general way: and unless the consent of all parties could be obtained, the assistance of the legislature would be wanted. I know large tracts of meadow-land in this county, upon which I have been informed the hay is, upon an average, ruined once in three years, that might be rendered perfectly secure by embanking; and at the same time watered at pleasure. Fourthly, the draining of boggy, fenny, and springy land: much has been done, and much remains to be done in this way: this kind of land is generally totally unfit for the production of grain, and in pasture produces but little useful herbage; draining may therefore be ranked amongst our most capital improvements, as when effectually done, it is the means of rendering land, formerly unproductive, capable of producing good hay, or pasture herbage; and oftentimes capable of arable cultivation for any kind of grain. Fifthly, the cultivation of the better and finer grasses, and other perennial pasture herbage, clean and unmixed with weeds, at the time of laying land to grass; for though nature be very bountiful, and soon fills the turf spontaneously, yet there is reason to believe this work would be much improved, as well as facilitated by art and industry; by a judicious selection of the seeds of the most valuable pasture plants. It is somewhat wonderful, that with all our boasted improvements in agriculture, we are so backward in this almost leading particular. Sixthly, the planting of precipices, and all land impracticable to the plough, with timber and underwood, and properly fencing in the same, and, if not incompatible with the growth of such plantation, the stocking such woodland with rabbits; under this head I would include, the planting the summits of our barren mountains with Scotch firs, sycamores, and other hardy kinds, which would both ornament and shelter the adjacent country; also the planting of undrainable bogs, (if such there be) with one or other of the willow tribe; and as such plantations attain certain stages of growth, the clearing of an equal breadth of flat wood-land, and converting the same into arable and pasture land. A due attention to the above particulars, united with the extension of the best parts of our present practice, seem to constitute the highest perfection of agriculture to be expected at present, and indeed would add greatly to, and very much increase, the landed products of the county.'

P. 182.

Some of the observations contained in the Appendix are sensible and judicious; but there was no necessity for so much botanical description.

POETRY.

Miltonis Poëma, Lycidas, Græcè Reditum. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.

We had occasion to notice Mr. Plumptre's Greek version of Pope's Messiah, in our Review for September 1795. We are sorry that we cannot speak in very flattering terms of the translator's improvement in the present attempt.

To write a Greek poem of any considerable length, is a work of such complicated difficulty, as requires an union of the rarest talents. The writer must not only remember Greek words, phrases, and idioms, but be able to recall them at will, to make them pass in review before him, and, out of many expressions, to choose that which may best suit the sense, the metre, and the style required.

The Greeks not only kept their poetry entirely distinct from their prose, so that many phrases and words deemed just and polite in common speaking and writing were utterly discarded from verse; they had also a different style for every species of poetry. If we add to these circumstances the consideration, that every dialect of Greek to a certain degree constituted a language by itself, we shall have some faint idea of the difficulties which attend a votary of the Greek Muses.

Perhaps the Greek translators of Milton and Gray have been partly misled by the character which these poets have acquired for their Greek learning and Grecian taste. But, though these writers abound in allusions to the ancients, and occasionally borrow from them with great freedom, we doubt whether this be any great advantage to the translator. They clothe the thoughts which they borrow with so many ornaments of their own, they interweave so much of their own sentiment and diction, that it is often more difficult to transfuse these mixed passages into Greek, than it would be to find an equivalent Greek expression for an English original.

Another misfortune of which we have to complain, is, that, in translations of this kind, we are often obliged to be edified by the original. And though some may perhaps think it right that a translator should copy his author, even in his faults, we confess we should have been better pleased if Mr. Plumptre had endeavoured to explain Milton's difficult passages.

We shall now proceed to make a few observations on particular places. 'Ivy never sere,' (v. 2.) is not ill translated by *κισσας αεικωνιο*; but 'bitter constraint, and sad occasion dear,' are rendered by an inharmonious verse,

Πίπρα αναγκαῖα, λυπρὸς χρῆμα, ἀλλα ποθεῖτον.

Neither is *χρῆμα* a good word for 'occasion:' *χρεος* would have improved both the rhythm and the sense.

*Τῷ Λυκίδᾳ τις αὐτὸν αἴχοι μελος; οἰδὲ καὶ αὐτὸς
Συρισθεν, γλυκεραν θύτος περγυωσαν αἰδαν.*

There may be some instances of the article prefixed to proper names; but, we are persuaded, they are few in hexameter poetry. Οἰδε has always a present signification; it ought to have been ηδε, if the verse would have admitted; οὐψος πυργωσαι αἰοιδαν is not unhappy; but γλυκεραν is surely a very improper substitute for 'lofty.' Milton says that his friend excelled, not in the *sweeter*, but in the *higher* kinds of poetry. The epithet σεμναν would, we think, have been preferable. Thus Aristophanes makes Bacchus address Æschylus,

Ἄλλ' ω πρωτος των Ἑλληνων πυργωσας ῥηματα σεμνα.

In the next verse,

Οὐ δὴ μνη πλωτασθαι εασομεθ' εὐθα καὶ εὐθα,

we fear εασομεθα cannot be used in an active sense. We recollect only one instance of the middle future; and there it has a passive signification. Euripides, Iph. Aul. 331.

Οὐχι δεινα; τον εμον οικειν οικον ουκ εασομαι;

this mistake is less excusable, because the active form εασομεν would have equally answered every purpose.

The verses in Milton, beginning, ' So may some gentle Muse,' Mr. Plumtre has translated in such a manner as to make them unintelligible, at least to us. 'Muse' is rather loosely used by Milton for 'poet:' but such a licence seems scarcely allowable in Greek.

The little mistakes in orthography (such as Δαμαίτας for Δα-ειτας, τεθρημενα for τεθρημιμενα), or in prosody, (such as ενδυμα, μδοξα) we shall not be extreme to mark. We shall briefly notice an error, or, to speak more gently, a licence, in which Mr. Plumtre too freely indulges himself. He frequently inserts the copulative, long after the word that begins the clause to be coupled. This, perhaps, may sometimes be the case in the enclitic τε; but we believe it to have been very rarely, if ever, admitted by the ancients in καὶ, when καὶ simply performs the office of our conjunction, *and*. Mr. Plumtre seems to have been betrayed into this mistake by the frequency of this licence among the Latins. In general, modern writers of ancient language ought to remember a precept equally useful in criticism and morality: *quod dubitas, ne feceris.* Where there is a certain established mode of expression, why should we have recourse to an un-common, suspicious mode? Those who select unusual words or phrases, whether to show their own learning, or to triumph over the ignorance of others, merit no more praise than the school-boy who rummages his dictionary for obsolete Latin to puzzle his master.

We should abuse the patience of our readers, and tire ourselves, if we minutely criticised every part of this version. We are ready to allow that more learning and ingenuity have been employed in it, than perhaps we could produce from our own stock. But we only meant to say, what we before hinted, that the profit of such performances

will seldom repay the cost. We shall give the first sentence of the versior, as a specimen to the curious, and conclude with wishing, that, if Mr. Plumptre henceforward should quit Greek poetry, as his motto seems to imply *, he may turn his reading and abilities to some part of literature that shall be more useful to himself and the public.

‘Λυγραι ἀπαξ ετι δαφναι, ἀπαξ ετι κισσω εθειραις
 Μυρτοι αε. ζωοι περιπλοκοι αμφιμελαιναις,
 Χερσιν απανθρωποις, ατεραμινως ὡδε κορυμβως
 Τραχυς εων ηκω δρεψειμενος, ἀβρα βιαιας
 Δρυψας φυλλ', αεκων δε, πριν ακραιον θερος ελθειν.
 Πικρα αναγκαια, λυπρον ΧΡΕΟΣ, αλλα ποβεινον,
 Καιρον εμ' οτρυνει παρακαιριον ύμιμι ταραξαι.
 Ωλετο γαρ Λυκιδας· Λυκιδας φιλος ωλετ', εφαβων
 Αρτι, νεος Λυκιδας· αιτω δ' ισον ουκ ελιπ' αλλον.’ P. 3.

N. B. We have taken the liberty to substitute one of the corrections above proposed.

The Vales of Wever, a Loco-descriptive Poem, inscribed to the Rev. John Granville, of Calwich, Staffordshire. By J. Gisborne, Esq. 4to. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1797.

To each of the cantos of this poem a motto from Akenside is prefixed. We wish Mr. Gisborne had studied the Pleasures of Imagination more, and Dr. Darwin less. He has imitated the bloated and obscure style, the stiff sentences, and the preposterous personifications, of the Botanic Garden; but, in strength of conception, or splendour of imagery, we find no resemblance. We follow him through a labyrinth of words, without a clue to guide us to his meaning. The description of some naiads going to see the wire-mill is among the most intelligible parts of the poem.

‘Here oft the sister naiads urge
 Their steps on Churnet's flowery verge,
 Smile at the smiles, whene'er they pass,
 Of beauty beaming in the glas.—
 Lo! now they leave their shadowy caves,
 And cleave with snow-white arms the waves;
 Till (where dismantled Alton lours
 'Mid tottering wrecks, time-moulder'd towers,
 Round each pale bastion ivy creeps,
 And fallen grandeur decks the steeps)
 With dew-dropp'd hands they clasp the sedge,
 On pearly feet ascend the edge;
 Their limbs in folds of lustre veil,
 And give their tresses to the gale.
 As they trip down the verdant shore,
 Sudden, emergent waters roar;

* Extremum. hunc, Arethusa, mihi concede —

Rebellowing clamours loud a-fail
 Alton's proud cliff and echoing vale,
 In blackening volumes smoke ascends,
 O'er heaven's aerial arch extends,
 Dims every flower and radiant green,
 And curtains all the busy scene.
 Chill'd with strange horrors, pause the fair,
 Gaze on the foam-revolving wear;
 Each closer binds her sister's hand;
 Fear-fix'd the lovely statues stand.
 Lo ! where the wheeling river boils,
 Sudden, a portal hoarse recoils;
 Dark forms, within a deep recess,
 Around their ponderous anvils press,
 Or jarring beat the brazen thongs,
 And gorge with brass th' insatiate tongs.
 But now the sooty crowds a while
 Cast on the fair "a ghastly smile;"
 With lifted hammers pois'd in air,
 Gaze on the nymphs, forget their care.
 Again the modern Cyclops throng,
 And roll their brazen wreaths along,
 Ope the broad stove's resplendent door,
 And glory shudders on the floor :
 Loud roars the wind ! fresh flames aspire,
 Ceil the wide vault with sheets of fire,
 With squander'd stars the smoke illume,
 While lightnings quiver through the gloom.' P. 77.

There is a personification of 'Indignant Frost' in this poem, scarcely inferior to the thunder and lightning of Mr. Bayes.

It is proper to distinguish this Mr. Gisborne from the ingenious moralist of that name.

The Scath of France; or, the Death of St. Just and his Son, a Poem. To which is added, Sir Mordac and Balma, &c. By E. Smith, Esq. Author of William and Ellen, Lennard and Rosa, &c. &c. 12mo. 15. Jordan. 1797.

We are pleased to find that absurdities are less numerous in these little poems, than in Mr. Smith's *William and Ellen*. In the title, however, *Scath* is an awkward expression; and it was injudicious to give, to a fictitious character, a name distinguished in the French revolution.

We may also affirm, that the tale of sir Mordac and Balma is, in some particulars, incredible. The best of these pieces is that in the Scotch dialect on the little ballad-finger: in this, however, the exclamation *Och!* too frequently occurs.

Christ's Hospital, a Poem. By T. S. Surr. 4to. 2s. 6d. Longman.

1797.

We must commend Mr. Surr's attempt to do honour to the excellent school in which he was educated, and which has supplied our universities with some of their brightest ornaments, though there are persons mean enough to be ashamed of the charity of which they have partaken.

One extract will give a fair specimen of the author's abilities. It represents a country clergyman in a new character, that of a teacher of astronomy.

' In yon sweet vale, where blithe Contentment dwells,
And Peace sits list'ning to the sabbath bells,
A mansion, cloath'd with woodbine tendrils fair,
Adjoins the rural hamlet's house of pray'r.
Hail ! happy, humble roof, where truth and grace
Shine in thy master's venerable face.
Oft have I listen'd with the rustic throng,
To truth's sweet dictates flowing from his tongue,
As many a summer's eve, their labours o'er,
Admiring peasants flock'd around his door ;
And stood amaz'd to hear the learned man
Assist their minds sublimest truths to scan :
Explain how the illustrious orb of day,
Alternate sheds on either world his ray ;
Or pointing to the stars that twinkled round,
Their names, their course, in simplest words expound ;
Deducing thus from Nature's wond'rous laws,
The pow'r and wisdom of the great first cause.
Thence would he lead the rustic's pliant mind
To duties, which the social union bind :
Descant upon the peace just laws ensure,
Which spread an equal shield o'er rich and poor ;
Display the blessings that from labour flow,
Whilst youthful indolence is breeding woe ;
Display what healthful joys from temp'rance spring,
And shew intoxication's pois'nous sting.
Thus would he teach his audience to prize
Fair virtue for the sweets which she supplies,
And shun alluring vice's treach'rous road,
Where rose leaves strew'd conceal the deadly goad.' p. 29.

The writer, however, has not always acknowledged his obligations to the poetry of Mr. Bowles.

First Flights, by John Heyrick, Junior, Lieutenant in the Fifteenth (or King's) Regiment of Light Dragoons : containing Pieces in Verse on various Occasions. 4to. 3s. 6d. sewed. Dilly. 1797.

We are informed in the Advertisement that

‘ the latter part of the proof sheets were in the hands of the author, when it pleased God to remove him suddenly from all his earthly concerns.’

The reader will perceive from our specimen, that, in this ‘ his first and last production,’ he appears as a man of good feelings and respectable talents.

‘ Stain to the brim the spacious bowl,
And let the poison swell the soul ;
Press, press the bleeding grape again,
Till Reason quit thy giddy brain ;
Then call it jollity, and think
That honour waits you whilst you drink ;
Ask friendship from the scoundrel vile,
And fancy love when harlots smile.

‘ But hope not in thy narrow mind
Great love will ever be confined ;
The gentle passion will retire
With those who own its genuine fire :
In Betsey’s lovely breast he’ll meet
An elegant and soft retreat,
There will I seek him out, and prove
True joys alone belong to love.’ p. 39.

A Trip to Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight from London, in rambling Verses. Dedicated to the Officers and Seamen, and those acting with them, on board the Navy. By a Friend to Britain.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Dickson. 1797.

This poem was begun in the year 1782. Had the author become wiser as he grew older, we should not have had the trouble of perusing fifty-two pages of dulness.

Belinda ; or, the Kisses of Joannes Bonefoni of Auvergne, translated, and accompanied with the original Latin. 8vo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Kearsley. 1797.

The translator has omitted the mentioin of his name. By such secrecy he has manifested his prudence; for a translation of the *Pervigilium Veneris* would, we think, render any name infamous.

D R A M A.

The Minister : a Tragedy. In Five Acts. Translated from the German of Schiller, Author of the Robbers, Don Carlos, &c. By M. G. Lewis, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Bell. 1797.

A translation of this play was noticed in our review for June 1795: this, Mr. Lewis says in his advertisement, is—

‘ so extremely ill executed, and in so mutilated a condition, as to leave scarce a shadow of resemblance between the original and the copy. The author has taken the liberty of omitting whole charac-

ters and scenes, and in several places has thought proper to substitute his own sentiments for Schiller's; an alteration by which the piece is very far from gaining.—Lest the present translation should be mistaken for the former, I have thought it right to change the names both of the characters and of the play itself; in every other respect I have endeavoured to keep strictly to the original: and when I offer my translation to the public, it gives me some confidence, to reflect that, although this second attempt may be as bad as the first, it is utterly impossible for it to be worse.'

The plays of Schiller have obtained a celebrity which far exceeds their merits, and which cannot be permanent. On a first perusal, they astonish by their forced ideas, and by a perpetual attempt at strangeness and sublimity; but when, no longer hurried away by the story, we seek for remoter beauties, for those recurrences of thought, those broken allusions, which render Shakspeare the most philosophical of poets, our search is fruitless—there is no knowledge of the human heart—instead of sublimity, we discover extravagance; instead of passion, madness. When Casimir is convinced of the falsehood of Julia, he exclaims—

' For ever lost? Yes, false unfortunate, lost are we both! Aye, by the Almighty God! If I am lost, thou art so also. Judge of the world, ask not the damsel from me! The damsel is mine. I exchanged your whole world for the damsel; I renounced your whole excellent creation. Leave me the damsel, Judge of the world! Millions of soul's sigh after thee; turn on them the eye of thy mercy: Judge of the world, abandon me to myself! [Clasping his hands with passion.] Can the Great, the All-powerful Creator be avaritious of one miserable soul, and that soul the worst in his creation? The damsel is mine! The damsel belongs to me! to me, who was once her god; to me, who am now her devil! [A pause: he fixes his eyes upon a point with terrible expression.] An eternity passed with her upon the rack of everlasting perdition! Her melting eye-balls rooted on mine! Our blazing ringlets entwined together! Our shrieks of agony dissolving into one!—And then to repeat to her the proofs of my affection! And then to remember her of her broken oaths!—God! God! The union is dreadful. but eternal!' P. 141.

These horrible feelings are not the feelings of nature: at least an English audience would not recognise them, however they may please in Germany.

There are parts, however, in the plays of Schiller, where the most severe critic must forget his faults: such is the catastrophe of the Minister, which, after repeated perusals, must ever be read with emotion.

There is a strange anachronism in this tragedy; the action is supposed to pass about the year 1580; and yet the prince of Brunswick, it is mentioned, has been selling troops to serve in America.

The translation is spirited and elegant.

The Wandering Jew: or, Love's Masquerade. A Comedy, in Two Acts. As performed by their Majesty's Servants at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By Andrew Franklin. 8vo. 1s. Cawthorn. 1797.

This farce consists of a series of sketches, in a style of strong caricature. Some parts of it may give employment to the risible muscles; but the plot is ill-conducted and absurd.

RELIGION.

Six Sermons preached before the Right Hon. Brook Watson, Lord Mayor of the City of London. By George Stepney Townley, M. A. &c. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1797.

After some intemperate remarks relative to our supposed domestic foes, the ambition of our foreign enemies is thus chastised —

‘ But there stand opposed to that ambition, the united good sense of Britons, the loyalty of his majesty's subjects, and the approved valour of his fleets and armies: and, should the unprincipled enemy attempt to subjugate us in our native land, that spirit, which has ever animated the hearts of Britons, united in the common defence of their lives and property, their laws, liberty, and religion, will again burst forth with redoubled glory, and overwhelm the foe with confusion and desolation.’ P. 39.

Let not our readers suppose that this is an extract from the lord-mayor's speech at a meeting of the livery; for it is from his chaplain's sermon on the day of a general fast. Strange it is, that ministers of the gospel of peace should thus mistake the character of their religion, and, instead of soothing the passions of men, should use a language not justifiable even in the tribune of a convention, or on the floor of the house of commons. Whatever may be the sentiments of an Englishman on the constitution of his country or his civil interests, the pulpit is not the place to inculcate them: in the temple of the God of love and peace, the discordant shrieks of war should not be uttered; and the concerns of a heavenly kingdom ought not to be debased by a mixture with the impurity of earthly politics.

In his theology our author is rather dogmatic. ‘ From the foundation of the world, one day in seven was sanctified and hallowed in remembrance of the work of creation.’ Where are the proofs of this sanctification? That the seventh day also has been kept as a holy-day for nearly 1800 years by Christians, is not a well-founded notion, unless the writer can bring a better proof than the *status dies* of Pliny. The meeting before sun-rise for religious worship is no proof of cessation from work during the day.

The separate existence of the soul after death is encumbered with many difficulties; and the endeavour to establish the point has a great tendency to encourage the popish notion of purgatory. We

do not see any great utility in a pulpit disquisition on this subject. It is enough that our Saviour has brought immortality to light, and that the dead shall be judged by him ; but, if the dead in general are not to live again until the future thousand years are accomplished, it seems a contradiction to suppose them, till that period, in a state of sensibility.

Sixteen Sermons, prepared for the Press from the Manuscript of a Clergyman, now deceased, of the County of Salop. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Richardson. 1797.

These sermons would, in manuscript, have been an excellent present to a young clergyman on entrance into his profession. They are plain moral discourses, destitute of elegance of style and elevation of sentiment. The same subjects have repeatedly employed the pens of our best writers ; and, in the manner of treating them in the work before us, there is nothing which ought to have induced the editor to consign them to the press.

A Discourse on the Necessity and Duty of enlightening the Human Race, delivered in the Church of St. Mary, Whittlesea, on Wednesday the 8th of March, 1797, being the Day appointed for a general Fast. By George Burges, B. A. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1797.

This sermon contains more enlarged views of true christianity than we have of late years witnessed from the pulpit. It is not filled with invectives against the French, against jacobins, atheists, or levellers ; or with such strains as excite instead of allaying the passions of an audience. The preacher's mind was filled with a nobler subject : we give him credit for making it the theme of his discourse ; and we hope to see his example followed by all his brethren, till, by their united efforts, England shall be convinced of the expediency of becoming the friend of the poor, and of instructing them in every duty which can be required by God or society.

Socinianism indefensible, on the Ground of its moral Tendency ; containing a Reply to two late Publications ; the one by Dr. Toulmin, entitled the Practical Efficacy of the Unitarian Doctrine considered ; the other by Mr. Kentish, entitled the Moral Tendency of the genuine Christian Doctrine. By Andrew Fuller. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Gardiner. 1797.

It is related in the accounts of the persecutions in the time of Mary, that the confined sectaries were frequently so violent in their disputes, though both parties were on the next day to be burned together, that the keeper of the prison was obliged to part them. We observe some traces of this disposition in the work before us. The Calvinist is irritated against the Socinian ; and the point for which he contends, is, that the Socinian doctrine is not so productive of good fruits as the Calvinistical : but every man who reads history will notice greater instances of cruelty and persecution among the Calvinists than among the Socinians. This, however, is not the true

way of examining a doctrine. If we credit the accounts given of the early Christians by their enemies, we should believe them to have been the worst of men; and a Calvinist speaking of Socinianism is not likely to be impartial. The present writer evidently has not read the Socinian authors, as he ascribes to them opinions which they do not maintain.

A Peep into the Synagogue, or a Letter to the Jews. 8vo. 15s. Mathews.

The writer objects to various rites of the Jews, which he ascribes, without reason, to priesthood. The Jews have now no priests. They have readers, who must go through a course of reading far more difficult than that which qualifies a person to be a minister of the established church. They ought to be paid for their services; and the payment is certainly too small, if we consider the wealth of the congregation. But we cannot approve the change recommended of the Hebrew for the language of the country. The author only *peeps* into the synagogue. If he would take a more accurate view, he would see reason for many practices, of the causes of which he now appears to be ignorant.

Purity of Christian Communion recommended as an Antidote against the Perils of the latter Days, in three Discourses, delivered to a Church of Christ in Richmond Court, Edinburgh. To which is added an Appendix, containing some Thoughts on the Weekly Celebration of the Lord's Supper, and on the Nature and Tendency of Human Standards of Religion. 8vo. 25s. Chapman. 1796.

The best review that we can give of these discourses, is to cite a part of the preface.

‘ The following discourses have no connection with any political cause of alarm. The author, and the people among whom he officiates as one of their elders, form a just estimate of the value of civil and religious liberty. They are sufficiently aware of every thing that endangers the latter in particular, and reckon themselves entitled, on necessary and urgent occasions, to plead those privileges which are secured to them by the laws of their country; as was frequently done with success by the apostle Paul. But their principles do not permit them, in any supposable case, to resist the civil powers by violent means, to join any association in opposition to government, or to give countenance, in any respect, to that turbulent spirit which tends to produce anarchy and mischief. Their inclination corresponds with an object which the scripture teaches them to have in view, in offering up to God “supplications, prayers, intercessions, and giving of thanks for kings, and for all that are in authority;” namely, “that they may lead a quiet and peaceable life, in all godliness and honesty.” When the just and beneficent conduct of rulers gives them an opportunity to live in peace, they enjoy it with thankfulness; and if at any time it should be otherwise, they would submit to the inconveniences that might arise from this, without

approving of the measures which had occasioned them. They yield subjection to the powers that are, whatever characters they may sustain; not from the motives of slavish fear, or worldly ambition; but in obedience to an express commandment of the God of heaven, and from a deep conviction that subordination among men is beneficial to all ranks in society, and essential to the existence of society itself.

‘ The discourses relate solely to a kingdom which is “ not of this world.” Its subjects are those who “ are of the truth, and hear Christ’s voice;” its blessings, which they alone enjoy, are of a spiritual and heavenly nature; its laws are written in the hearts of men by the spirit of the living God, and regulate the state of their minds, as well as their external conduct; its rewards, and its punishments have all a reference to the life to come; and its interests cannot be promoted or defended, on the part of those who espouse them, by any violent means whatever. One of those perpetual and irreversible decrees by which it is governed, is this, “ He that leadeth into captivity, shall go into captivity: he that killeth with the sword, must be killed with the sword. Here is the patience and the faith of the saints.” Does such a kingdom exist in this sinful world, unaided by the power of man, enduring always his contempt, and sometimes the most violent effects of his malignant rage? who then would scruple to affirm that it is in reality the kingdom of God?’

P. iii.

The sermons are followed by an Appendix, consisting of two disquisitions entitled to notice. The former contains ‘ Thoughts on the Weekly Celebration of the Lord’s Supper;’ and the latter relates to ‘ the Nature and Tendency of Human Standards of Religion.’

Christology, or a Discourse concerning Christ; in himself, his Government, his Offices, &c. By the Rev. Robert Fleming, &c. Abridged; in Two Parts. By Alexander Cleeve, A. B. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons.

The intention of the editor of this work was doubtless good; but it is not written in a style and manner calculated to arrest general attention, though it may suit the taste of particular readers.

A Selection of Hymns for Social Worship. By Dr. Enfield. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

This selection is made from the psalms and hymns of Dr. Watts, and from various other sources, by the judgment and taste of Dr. Enfield. It is elegant and well-chosen. Every expression has been carefully expunged which is not adapted to Unitarian societies; and the collection is also purged from all mixture of *Judaism*. To some, this will be an objection; but, to the congregations for whose use it is intended, it will be a recommendation. It is an agreeable addition, that the names of the authors are given in the index to the hymns; and among them we observe some pleasing originals.

MEDICINE, SURGERY, &c.

Reports principally concerning the Effects of the Nitrous Acid in the Venereal Disease, by the Surgeons of the Royal Hospital at Plymouth, and by other Practitioners. Published by Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

There are, doubtless, many eruptions and sores on the pudenda, skin, and throat, as well as nodes on the bones, which are not syphilitic, but for the cure of which mercury has been generally and prejudicially employed. The public are much indebted to Mr. Hunter for pointing out the characteristic marks of venereal complaints; and it is to be regretted, that those gentlemen who have made trial of the nitrous acid for the cure of such diseases, have not paid sufficient attention to those *criteria* by which their nature is to be distinguished. It is on this account, that we do not extract any of the present cases for the perusal and information of our readers; they concur, however, with those published by Mr. Cruikshank of Woolwich, to show that nitrous acid will cure venereal complaints; that it is highly beneficial in several kinds of ulcers; and, as far as is at present known, innocent in all. Its use is therefore likely to be a considerable acquisition in medicine, not only on account of its own powers, but because it may prevent the inordinate and indiscriminate administration of mercury. Doctor Beddoes enters into some speculations, relative to the effects of acids and oxygene in diseases; but these, we suppose, are only meant to excite attention to this subject. The pamphlet concludes with a circular letter, which, as it gives a kind of review of the state of the subject at the time of its publication, we here insert.

‘ Sir,

‘ You probably know, that Mr. Scot, of Bombay, was led by considerations that need not be stated here, to try the nitrous acid in the venereal disease; that the experiment answered; and that it has been successfully imitated in England.

‘ In above fifty cases, many of them picked for the worst, the surgeons of the royal hospital at Plymouth have found this acid certain, expeditious, and infinitely milder, than mercury. Their mode of administration is extremely commodious. To a pint of water they add a drachm of strong nitrous acid, together with four or six ounces of simple syrup. This mixture is sucked through a glass tube. 1² or 2 drachms of the strong acid, so diluted, have proved an adequate dose for the day.

‘ Mr. Cruikshank, of Woolwich, ingeniously substituted bodies of analogous constitution. He represents the oxygenated muriate of pot-ash, as more powerful than nitrous acid. It produced an inflammatory state of the system.

‘ What is here recapitulated, together with some suggestions, may be read at large in “ Considerations on Factitious Airs, Part iv. and

v. Johnson ;" in "Two Cases of Diabetes, Dilly ;" and in "Reports concerning the Effects of Nitrous Acid, &c. Johnson." Above 100 bad cases stand attested, as cured, beyond all reasonable doubt. Some unsuccessful trials are noticed in the last pamphlet.

" The extraordinary power and mild action of the acid, with the proportion of failures, render a fuller induction of facts and testimonies highly desirable—. It is certain, that to establish the anti-venereal virtue of substances, not injurious to the constitution, would be giving a deadly blow to empirical imposture. It cannot have escaped you, that the pretensions of many quack medicines are rested on the occasional inefficacy of mercury, and an overcharged representation of its baneful effects.

" By the co-operation of practitioners, a thousand cases might soon be collected. And it is hoped that you will not refuse your assistance to such an undertaking. The share I have had in conveying information to the public, very naturally led me to reflect on the speediest method of solving this problem ; how far the cure of lues can be justifiably intrusted to the nitrous acid in the first instance. In consequence, I have taken the liberty of making the present application. I do not think, that it can yet be deemed superfluous to collect more evidence, nor will the advantage of bringing the evidence together be disputed. There are persons, to whom every large design appears, by reason of its comprehensiveness, absurd. Others, I trust, will not condemn the idea of attempting to induce a large part of the medical profession to unite in an inquiry of the highest interest.

" Where the case prospers, the report should concisely state the symptoms, with the date and permanence of the cure. Appearances leading to a knowledge of the cause of failure should be noted. The nitrous acid (and the oxygenated muriate) will be found useful in various diseases. But, as the collection here proposed will be confined to syphilis, information on other subjects should be written separately.

" If any profits accrue, they shall be divided among charitable establishments for venereal patients. On this account it will not, I hope, be thought improper to request that communications be transmitted, free of expence, to Mr. Johnson, bookseller, 72, St. Paul's church-yard, London.

" I do not wish that any reports should be forwarded before January 1798. If, by the end of February, the number shall suffice for publication, they shall be immediately printed ; or else returned.

" To render the task of editor as little disagreeable as possible, it is desired that all technical terms and quantities may be written at length, and the whole in a fair hand.

" Sept. 5, 1797.

" THOMAS BEDDOES.

" Be pleased to communicate this letter to any physician, surgeon, or apothecary, of your acquaintance." p. 99.

Mercury stark naked. A Series of Letters, addressed to Dr. Beddoes; stripping that poisonous Mineral of its Medical Pretensions, &c. &c. By Isaac Swainson. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1797.

Mr. Swainson informs Dr. Beddoes, to whom this book is addressed, that circumstances

'led him to quit a business to which he was bred, but for which he never had a taste, for the administration of a celebrated vegetable medicine introduced into this country by M. de Velnos.' p. 2.

His object, in the present publication, appears to be the recommendation of that medicine. But, in the course of the work, he displays his want of knowledge of the animal œconomy, and, consequently, his incompetency to judge of the effects of medicines.

L A W.

A Summary of the Law of Bills of Exchange, Cash Bills, and Promissory Notes. By John Bayley, Esq. Barrister at Law. Second Edition. 3s. 6d. Boards. Brooke. 1797.

This is a very useful compendium of the law relative to bills of exchange, cash bills, and promissory notes. The first edition was published in the year 1789, and consisted only of general principles: these, which are laid down in a concise but clear manner, are in the present edition illustrated and justified by accurate references to the adjudged cases from which they are deduced. We can therefore recommend the work as comprising, within a narrow compass, every information that is necessary to a knowledge of the law relating to bills and notes.

Reports of Cases relating to the Duty and Office of a Justice of the Peace, from Michaelmas Term 1791, to the End of Trinity Term 1793. By Michael Nolan, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Parts I. and II. 5s. each. Boards. Butterworth.

It was the intention of the author of these reports to have published, at the commencement of each Michaelmas term, a regular series of the determinations of the court of king's bench, in the preceding year, on cases respecting the powers and duties of justices of the peace; and, to render such a publication more useful, it was proposed, in an advertisement prefixed to the second part, to add to the reports of those cases such statutes as should pass in each year. In compliance with this intimation, the author has annexed to the second part, (paged separately from the work itself, an appendix, containing some of the statutes of the session 33 Geo. 3: but this appendix appears to have been formed with little judgment; and several of the most material acts of the session are omitted: one in particular the author ought on no account to have passed over, viz. cap. 55, by which justices of the peace are empowered to fine peace-officers for neglect of duty, and masters for ill usage of apprentices,

and also to back warrants of distress. In the execution of the principal design, however, Mr. Nolan has succeeded; for the cases are reported with accuracy and precision, and are well entitled to rank as original, and not mere concurrent, authorities. Influenced by this opinion, we regret to hear that he has not met with sufficient encouragement to warrant a prosecution of his first intention, and that at present the completion of the volume is not to be expected. This disappointment (for which the author seems to have been prepared, from the copious index which is added to each of the parts) may have arisen from the circumstance of the same cases being, with few exceptions, reported in the Term Reports; or from the plan adopted by Mr. Williams, of publishing an annual continuation of his Justice of the Peace, in which all the adjudications and statutes of the preceding year are inserted, and which must in some degree unavoidably supersede the demand for any separate periodical series of reports in this branch of our law.

The whole Law relative to the Duty and Office of a Justice of the Peace, comprising also the Authority of Parish Officers. By Thomas Walter Williams, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. V. containing the adjudged Cases from Michaelmas Term 1794 to the End of Trinity Term 1797, and a copious Abridgment of the Statutes passed in the 35th, 36th, and 37th Years of the Reign of his present Majesty. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsions. 1797.

Mr. Williams has now completed a fifth volume of his Justice of the Peace, which brings the law relative to that important office down to the present period: it consists of three parts, which were published in the successive Michaelmas terms subsequent to the completion of the original work in 1795. The adjudged cases and statutes of each year are carefully abridged, and arranged with judgment under proper heads; and, to obviate the inconvenience that might be apprehended from the occurrence of the same titles in different places, the author has subjoined a clear and copious table of contents, presenting at one view the principal matters comprised in the volume: there are also separate tables of reference to the adjudged cases and the statutes.

In reviewing this article, we observed with considerable satisfaction, that one of the happy effects resulting from the operation of the statute 35 Geo. 3, c. 101, which prevents the removal of the poor before they become actually chargeable, and which Mr. Williams has inserted in p. 139, (exclusive of the meliorated situation of the industrious poor from such a provision) is, that a considerable expense must have already been saved to many parishes from the restraint now imposed on the prosecution of orders of removal; as it is evident, from the enumeration of the settlement cases referred to the consideration of the court of king's bench in the last year, and from a comparison of the number decided in that court in former years, that the business of the different quarter-

sessions throughout this kingdom must have declined, upon questions of settlement, in the proportion of at least two-thirds.

EDUCATION.

Pastoral Lessons, and Parental Conversations. Intended as a Companion to Mrs. Barbauld's *Hymns in Prose.* 12mo. 1s. Darton and Harvey. 1797.

These lessons are well calculated to accompany Mrs. Barbauld's hymns, of which they are professedly imitations. Every attempt to add to the variety of books proper for young minds is worthy of commendation.

Moral Biography; or the Worthies of England displayed: containing the Lives of Persons eminently distinguished for their Virtues and Talents. Designed for the Use of private Families and public Schools. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sael. 1797.

This is one of those compilations which challenge no praise, and provoke no censure. As it seems to be chiefly intended, however, for young persons, the author ought not to have confined himself to a dry chronological detail, but should have given anecdotes, sayings, &c.

ROMANCES.

Santa-Maria, or the Mysterious Pregnancy. A Romance. By J. Fox. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Kearsley. 1797.

Our modern romance-writers appear to be extremely desirous of ascertaining how far it is possible to carry extravagance and absurdity; and the experiment of this author, though not absolutely decisive, approaches as nearly to decision as most of the attempts which we have witnessed. He has considerably improved on his models. Besides copying, with little variation, the mysteries of all the castles lately built, he introduces the mystery of pregnancy, or what Dr. Hill, in his satire on the Royal Society, called *Lucina sine concubitu*—a most delicate subject in a work principally intended for the amusement and instruction of females! It would have required abilities of no common kind to conceal the deformity of such a story; but, in the hands of Mr. Fox, it is productive of great disgust.

The style of this work accords with the variety of terrific conundrums with which it abounds, being a tissue of imitations faintly reminding us of several popular romances. In the last volume he attempts to make his characters (who are all Italians) speak the language of Shakspeare; and he is successful as far as the source is pointed out by the repetition of "beshrew me," "ever and anon," and such scraps.—As specimens of the grand and sublime in romantic writing, the reader may take the following passages.

Vol. i. p. 151. 'Rodolph eagerly opened the chest—when—!!! to his infinite astonishment and horror, he beheld—a frightful va-cuity !!!'

These marks of *admiration* are the author's; and the meaning is, in plain English, that Rodolph opened a chest, and was surprised to find it empty.

Again, vol. ii. p. 178, speaking of the veneration of monks for relics, Rodolph says,

' Still will they preserve our mortal relics to gape—to stare upon, and to pray to withal, though these same musty bones must bitterly remind them of that awful *self-dissolution* which they are themselves so unprepared to meet, and which, [what?] if once re-animated, might publish to the world such *confessional* horrid truths, as would make the *hair* even of murder, blasphemy, and incest, stand on end.'

Although we have accused Mr. Fox of being an *imitator*, we must in justice add, that, to the best of our knowledge and belief, the passages above quoted are *original*.

Les Amours de Clitophon et de Leucippe, par Achilles Tatius; traduit du Grec, avec des Notes. Paris.

The Loves of Clitophon and Leucippe, translated from the Greek of Achilles Tatius. 12mo. 1797.

This romance is usually placed in the next rank to that of Heliodorus. It is amusing, and it interests the feelings: but it does not abound with variety of incident; nor is it sufficiently chaste to be adapted to the perusal of youth, without occasional corrections and suppressions.

The editor of this volume has only re-published, with some engravings, that translation which was given to the world by the abbé Des-Fontaines. It is a free rather than a literal version; and the notes are apposite and useful.

In the first book, a passage of considerable length is omitted by the translator. It contains an account of the conversation between Clinias and Clitophon, and of the unfortunate death of the friend of the former; and, with slight alterations, might have been retained without giving the least offence to the modesty of the reader. Several pages of the second book are more properly omitted, as mere alteration would have been insufficient. But it is requisite that we should desist from our remarks; for it is inconsistent with our plan to dwell on a new edition of an old translation, unless we meet with some additions or improvements.

Numa Pompilius, second Roi de Rome. Par M. de Florian.

Numa Pompilius, the second of the Roman Kings. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Dulau. 1797.

This is merely a London edition of an esteemed romance,

founded on the basis of history; and it claims no other notice than an intimation, that the typographical execution of it is superior, in point of accuracy, to that of many French books printed in England.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

Suggestions for the Improvement of Hospitals, and other charitable Institutions. By William Blizzard, F. R. S. and F. A. S. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1796.

Among the contents of this little book, are

‘ Reflections upon the subject of assistant-surgeons to hospitals, written with the intention of strengthening the sentiments of the governors of the London hospital, when the proposition for assistant-surgeons was submitted to their consideration. They are here introduced, inasmuch as some hospitals are still without such an establishment.’ p. vii.

We have also an account of a charitable institution, called the Samaritan Society, which was established at the London hospital, principally by the exertions of Mr. Blizzard. We recommend this charity as a very useful institution.

We afterwards meet with observations upon hospitals, which are not very novel or important: they seem, however, to be the suggestions of a benevolent spirit, and may do good by calling the public attention to this subject; for, as the author has technically observed,

‘ the mind, excited to a certain degree, will often move on, until it has worked out something useful, agreeing in tendency with the exciting cause.’ p. x.

A short Address to the Professors of Surgery throughout his Majesty’s Dominions, on the Bill lately brought into Parliament for erecting the Corporation of Surgeons in London into a College. By a Member of the Corporation. 8vo. 1s. Sewell. 1797.

The author dispassionately defends the conduct of the court of assistants of the surgeons’ company, in disposing of their hall, and applying to parliament for a confirmation and slight extension of their privileges, without acquainting the other members of the society, by saying, that they were legally empowered to transact the business of the company, and that, with respect to talents and integrity, they were competent to the due execution of it.

‘ Many have thought it would have been proper to have taken the sense of a general meeting on the expediency of disposing of the hall. If there existed any doubts on the propriety of the measure, where could those doubts be more sedately considered, and every circumstance relative to them be more impartially weighed and deliberated on, than in a court of assistants formed by men of unblemished honour and integrity?’ p. 9.

We would, however, observe, that laws which, like those of the Medes and Persians, vary not, are very unfit for the government of a mutable society ; and that those regulations which were made by the surgeons when the company was first established, even if they were at that time excellent, may now be inexpedient and improper. If the court of assistants applied to parliament at all, they ought to have solicited the best possible code of laws : but, that they have not done so, appears to be the opinion of the majority of the company.

We are of opinion, that the only method of checking the progress of the confusion which this controversy has produced, and of re-establishing the affairs of the company, would be to convoke a meeting of the whole body. All party distinctions would then cease, as the resolutions would become the acts of the whole ; and we cannot doubt, that such an assembly would devise the best remedy that can be adopted. We are surprised, that the author of this address should seem to disapprove such an expedient.

Observations in Defence of a Bill lately brought into Parliament, for erecting the Corporation of Surgeons of London into a College ; and for granting and confirming to such College certain Rights and Privileges : including a Sketch of the History of Surgery in England.
By Thomas Chevalier, A. M. a Member of the Corporation. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

Mr. Chevalier, with a view to the present state and exigencies of surgery, has given a correct historical account of the first confusion of the surgeons and barbers in France ; — of the early state of surgery in this country, in which, as upon the continent, it was blended with the occupation of a barber ; — of the different acts of the legislature relative to surgery ; — and of the separation of the companies of surgeons and barbers in 1745. The judicial regulations of the new corporation of surgeons resembled, however, those of the company from which they had lately parted.

‘ The government of the surgeons’ company, and the management of all their affairs, were vested in the court of assistants, who were to be twenty-one in number, ten of whom were to be examiners, and each to hold their respective offices for life. They were to elect members out of the company at large to fill up vacancies in their own number, and persons from among themselves to fill vacancies in the court of examiners. They were also to choose annually one principal master or governor, and two other governors or wardens ; and nine members of the court of assistants, with two of the governors, formed a quorum for the transaction of business.’ p. 53.

The author contends, that the present regulations are good ; and that the additions lately proposed would make them better. It is unnecessary to abridge his arguments, which we think will not induce the discontented members of the company to alter their opinions.

*A Dressing for L***d T***r***w, prepared by a Surgeon.* 8s. 1s.
Cox. 1797. 12mo. 100 pp. 12s. 6d. 12s. 6d. 12s. 6d.

It does much credit to the talents of our countrymen, that the healing art has here attained, in its different branches, a degree of unrivaled excellence, by the persevering exertions of individuals, without that share of public patronage which it has met with in other nations. When a certain lord reflected in parliament on surgeons, on account of their original connection with barbers, and their want of literature, he certainly spoke without sufficient knowledge or consideration; and under these circumstances, whilst he was endeavouring to throw censure upon others, a considerable portion of it would recoil upon himself. But we do not think, that the dressing which the author of this pamphlet has prepared, is likely to cure his lordship's spleen; nor do we approve the composition, as some of the ingredients are too acrid, some superfluous, and none are of sufficient efficacy or power: it therefore exhibits to the public no good specimen of professional practice in such cases.

The Prompter; a Commentary on Common Sayings and Subjects, which are full of Common Sense, the best Sense in the World. 12mo. 1s. New-York. Imported by Dilly.

This production, though less distinguished by neatness of style, is in substance no unsuccessful imitation of Dr. Franklin's 'Poor Richard.' The following extract will give the English reader a genuine specimen of the manner of an American humourist.

'He does not work it right.'

‘ What a vulgar saying the Prompter has selected for his text in this number! Yet these vulgar sayings are often full of good sense.

‘ I knew a young man who left the army with an invincible attachment to gambling. He followed it closely till he had lost most of his wages; he then purchased a shop of goods, mostly on credit; he had his nightly frolics; he kept it up; he was a blood of the first rate; his goods were soon gone and not paid for; his creditors called and he began to cry *peccavi*; in fact, he did not work it right. But his friends helped him out of six scrapes, yea out of seven. At length necessity broke his spirit; it tamed him; he married; became a man of business; recovered his lost credit; and now he works it right.

‘ I often say to myself, as I ride about the country, what a pity it is our farmers do not work it right. When I see a man turn his cattle into the street to run at large and waste their dung, during a winter's day, I say this man does not work it right. Ten loads of good manure at least, are lost in a season by this slovenly practice; and all for what? For nothing indeed, but to ruin a farm.

‘ So when I see cattle, late in the fall or early in the spring,

rambling in a meadow or mowing field, poaching the soil and breaking the grass roots, I say to myself, this man does not work it right.

‘ So when I see a barn-yard with a drain to it, I say the owner does not work it right ; for how easy is it to make a yard hollow, or lowest in the middle, to receive all the wash of the sides, which will be thus kept dry for the cattle. The wash of the yard, mixed with any kind of earth, or putrid straw, is the best manure in the world ; yet how much do our farmers lose ! In fact they do not work it right.

‘ When I pass along the road and see a house with the clapboards hanging an end by one nail, and old hats and cloths stuffed into the broken windows, and the fences tumbling down or destroyed, I conclude the owner loves rum ; in truth, he does not work it right.

‘ When I see a man frequently attending courts, I suspect he does not work it right.

‘ When I see a countryman often go to the retailers with a bottle, or the labouring man carrying home a bottle of rum, after his work is done on Saturday-night, I am certain the man does not work it right.

‘ When a farmer divides a farm of 100 acres of land among five or six sons, and builds a small house for each and sets them to work for a living on a little patch of land, I question whether he works it right. And when these sons are afterwards unable to live on these mutilated farms, and are compelled by a host of children, to go to work by the day to get bread, I believe they are all convinced that they have not worked it right.

‘ When a man tells me his wife will not consent to go from home into new settlements, where he may have land enough and live like a nabob, and therefore he is obliged to sit down on a corner of his father’s farm, I laugh at him, and some time or other he will own, he has not worked it right.

‘ A man in trade who is not punctual in his payments, certainly does not work it right ; nor does the man, who trusts his goods to any body and every body.

‘ Whether in congress or a kitchen, the person who talks much is little regarded. Some members of congress then certainly do not work it right. A hint to the wife is sufficient ; but twenty hints have not been sufficient to silence the clamorous tongues of some congressional spouters.

‘ Family government gives complexion to the manners of a town ; but when we see, every where, children profane, indelicate, rude, saucy, we may depend on it their parents do not work it right.’ P. 21.

If neither the poignancy of Swift, nor the delicacy of Addison, appear in these passages, their humour is more adapted to the taste, and will probably have a better influence on the prudential charac-

ter, of the cits and farmers of the new world, than the effusions of those celebrated writers.

Gale's Cabinet of Knowledge; or, Miscellaneous Recreations. 12mo, 4s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1797.

Knowledge of all sorts for all sorts of people — tricks upon cards, conundrums, paradoxes, riddles, philosophy, theology, metaphysics. It would be a good parlour book — a work to be thrown in the way of young people to excite their curiosity. As no bad specimen of its contents, we select the following question and answer.

‘ *Query.* Which of these tradesmen, a bookseller, print-seller, printer, copper-plate printer, or publisher, have the most honesty?

‘ *Answer.* Though the employments of letter-printer, bookseller, publisher, plate-printer, or print-seller differ, yet they are members of the same body, and consequently are possessed in some degree, of the same principles, subject to the same temptations, and tainted with the same crimes. By comparing their respective artifices, the reader will the better judge of the truth and justice of our decision, with respect to their several integrities.

‘ The letter printer, originally, had an undoubted title to the free exercise of all the five branches of business, but as the number of hands increased, and trade grew more extensive, they came to be divided into their present different classes. The letter-printer was reduced to a state of dependency, whose situation with the bookseller, is like the bailiffs with the pettyfogger. They must keep their master’s secrets, be accessory to their frauds, and submit to their will and pleasure, or else starve. Self-interest, as well as self-preservation, is implanted in our natures, and if one will not do dirty work for gain, another will.

‘ The plate-printer has two masters to serve, the bookseller and printseller, who can hardly be supposed to serve both with integrity. We might as well expect he should be able to serve God and Mammon at the same time.

‘ The bookseller and printseller are the grand corrupters, who communicate the infection through the whole tribe. These are wilfully fraudulent, whereas the others are only by compulsion.

‘ The bookseller preys upon authors, as the printseller does upon engravers, whom they pursue, as the dolphins do the flying-fish, either instantly to devour, or to drive them aloft, that they may drop into their mouths. For, if any author refuses the price offered him for his copy, he is sure to have his work run down by the whole society. If, to secure his property, he hazards the printing and publishing his own performance, the sale of it is prevented; for such book being sent for out of the country, all orders are returned ignoramus, and a jury summoned thereupon to suppress it. They pretend to a vast fund of learning, but on enquiry, you will find it all superficial, consisting in title-pages. And they generally keep some poor pedant under their thumbs through whose eyes they see, and by whose judgment they are determined.

‘ The printers are the tools they work their wonders withal, without which they can perform nothing. Into these they early inculcate the doctrine laid down in the parable of the unjust steward, and for every hundred sheets they work off, bid them sit down quickly and write fifty, then commend their integrity, and say they have done wisely. In short, it is hard to find such a ruling thing as conscience among the fraternity. All moral duties must truckle under to interest; nor will they make any scruple of invading the property of a stranger, of a neighbour, or even their own brethren.

‘ The publisher is a sort of bookseller in miniature, but guilty of far greater extortion. He neither advances any money, nor runs the least hazard, and yet is hardly satisfied with 30l. per cent. per month, for vending another’s property. Upon the whole, as we are not able to discover the least tincture of any one virtue in above one out of twenty booksellers, printsellers, letter-printers, plate-printers, and publishers, the small share of common honesty to be found in more than that number, we assign it to the letter-printer.

‘ N. B. The foregoing is not intended to reflect upon any of the worthy gentlemen in trade, whom we know to be men of integrity.’
P. 231.

The Englishman’s Manual: containing a general View of the Constitution, Laws, Government, Revenue, Ecclesiastical, Civil, Military, and Naval Establishments of England, designed as an Introduction to the Knowledge of those important Studies. By J. Price.
12mo. 3s. Boards. 1797.

This little work appears to be a compilation from Blackstone and other authorities of allowed weight, and may serve to give a general idea of the subjects mentioned in the title-page; and, if any of them are treated less fully than the reader could wish, he will at least be prompted to seek for farther information in some excellent works which are here recommended.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Mr. Polwhele’s request shall be speedily complied with.
Many writers who affect an air of modesty and humility, are more influenced by vanity than ordinary observers suppose. The rev. Mr. Stewart, with pretended pleasantry and *real* asperity, attacks, both in prose and verse, our declared opinion of his two pamphlets (see Vol. XXI. New Arr. p. 463); but with what reason can he complain, that we have treated, as *trifles*, the pieces to which he has given that appellation? Though he may think, that no person but *himself* can have a right to censure *his* productions, we are confident that every unprejudiced reader will consider, as not intemperate or uncandid, that freedom of remark at which the poet is offended.

